

Royal Holloway, University of London

**To analyse the role and effect of family on the entrepreneurial
intentions of the Indian university students**

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Doctor of Philosophy

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DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, Ankit Gaur, hereby declare that this thesis and the work presented in it is entirely my own. Where I have consulted the work of others, this is always clearly stated.

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to exploit the gap in entrepreneurship literature by using mixed methods to advance our theoretical and empirical understanding of the role played by the family in developing the entrepreneurial intentions (EI) of Indian youth. This is of specific relevance from an Indian point of view since family in India is considered the cornerstone of its culture, and is considered to be responsible for passing on values and beliefs that are socially acceptable.

The study combines an ethnographic study of six families in Delhi with a survey of 1,123 complete responses from final year undergraduates. The ethnographic study advances our knowledge of Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour by identifying four elements of family which influence EI: (i) support and encouragement from grandparents, (ii) support and encouragement from parents, (iii) experience and experimentation with entrepreneurship, and (iv) image of entrepreneurship. Informed by the results of the ethnographic study, structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to formally test the direct relationships between the four elements of family and EI. The study finds strong relationships between Support and Encouragement – Parents to EI and also Experience and Experimentation to EI. The SEM also investigates the mediating role of: (i) Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC), (ii) Personal Attitudes (PA) and (iii) Subjective Norms (SN) between EI and the four elements of family influence.

The study has been successful in establishing the crucial role played by an individual's family in the development of their intentions towards entrepreneurship. The researcher hopes that this understanding along with the help of appropriate structural interventions can help to motivate the present young generation who have entrepreneurial aspirations but are constantly challenged and influenced by societal and familial pressures.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AVE	AVERAGE VARIANCE EXTRACTED
CFA	CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS
EFA	EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS
EI	ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS
GEM	GLOBAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP MONITOR
MSME	MICRO, SMALL AND MEDIUM ENTERPRISES
NCR	NATIONAL CAPITAL REGION
PA	PERSONAL ATTITUDE
PBC	PERCEIVED BEHAVIOURAL CONTROL
PCA	PRINCIPLE COMPONENT ANALYSIS
SEM	STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING
SME	SMALL AND MEDIUM SIZE ENTERPRISES
SN	SUBJECTIVE NORMS
TEA	TOTAL EARLY STAGE ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTIVITY
TPB	THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR
TRA	THEORY OF REASONED ACTION
VIF	VARIANCE INFLATION FACTOR

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurial behaviour is considered to be a ‘planned and intentional behaviour’ (Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000; Fayolle and Gailly, 2005). The ‘Intention’ to perform a behaviour is considered to be the single most important factor to predicting any kind of planned behaviour (Walker, Jeger and Kopecki, 2013; Sánchez, 2012; Fini et al, 2009). Shapero (1981) discussed that a strong and sustainable economic environment can be achieved with a continuous supply of individuals that take initiative when a lucrative opportunity appears, helping the economy cope with the constantly changing environment. Hence, identifying these potential entrepreneurs and nurturing them with the right environment so that they are prepared to accept an opportunity when it arrives, should be the goal of every government and/or organization (Krueger and Brazeal, 1994). Entrepreneurs are needed to bring about change in established corporations as well as the public sector, and hence reliable methods are required to be able to effectively identify such individuals. It is thus understandable that a lot of academic literature is focussed on trying to identify such individuals by predicting the initial signs of entrepreneurial behaviour, so that these individuals with entrepreneurial potential may be converted into potential entrepreneurs and their behaviour promoted and encouraged amongst the population in general (Thompson, 2004). Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) is one of the most accepted theoretical frameworks to study intentions as a direct predictor of behaviour (Autio et al, 2001; Abebe, 2012; Gird and Bagraim, 2008; Ajzen, 2011). However, the TPB predicts only between 28% to 39% variation in behaviour (Fini et al, 2009; Armitage and Conner, 2001). This highlights the need to further understand and elaborate on the various factors that may influence the development of entrepreneurial

intentions in order to be able to increase the understanding and prediction of entrepreneurial behaviour. This is especially important from the perspective of the youth. The current population of the youth (individuals from 18-34 years of age, GEM) is the highest it has ever been and to add to this growing population, the youth unemployment rates are rapidly escalating as well (ILO, 2013). The organised, formal sector in most countries is stagnant and incapable for providing jobs at the required rate, hence alternative employment options are required in order to prevent the unemployment rate from reaching a critical level. Promoting entrepreneurship is considered to be one of the ways in which employment can be provided to this growing population (Kew et al, 2013). Hence in this study, the aim was to identify the factors that could be important for the promotion of entrepreneurial intentions in the youth.

In addition to several personal, social, environmental and contextual factors that have been reported in the literature to have an impact on the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals, family is widely considered to be the main instrument that has the primary responsibility and role of enhancing a young individuals awareness about entrepreneurship (Bagheri and Pihie, 2010; Kundu and Rani, 2008; White, Thornhill and Hampson, 2007). It is considered to be one of the most important institutions that not only shapes their attitude towards entrepreneurship but also develops their talent, capabilities and creativity to start the entrepreneurial process. However, despite this the effect that family can have on entrepreneurial behaviour (Chrisman, Chua and Steier, 2003; Bagheri and Pihie, 2010; Fini et al, 2009), has not been explored in sufficient depth in entrepreneurship literature.

This study uses a mixed method approach, including ethnographies on six Indian families and quantitative surveys of over 1100 students to explore the impact that family can have on the development of entrepreneurial intentions of the youth of India. The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor report (GEM report) defines individuals from the age range of between 18-34 years as 'youth'. This study has followed the same age criteria in

order to identify the potential subjects. This study also aims to extend the current knowledge of entrepreneurial intentions and behaviour beyond the scope of Europe and North America to India. The Indian economy is worth 2.05 trillion US Dollars per year and has a population of 1.31 billion people (Worldbankorg, 2016)¹, making India an important world trading partner (Wilson and Purushothaman, 2003). Despite this increased importance of the Indian economy at the global level, a review of literature until 2008 revealed the limited amount of published research that existed on entrepreneurship in emerging economies, with just one study being published on India (Bruton, Ahlstron and Obloj, 2008). Although post-2008, there have been some studies looking at entrepreneurship in India such as those on opportunity recognition and resource mobilisation (Bhagavula et al, 2010), religion, social class, and entrepreneurial choice (Audretsch, Bönte and Tamvada, 2013), and entrepreneurial intentions (Fitzsimmons and Douglas, 2011). However, the knowledge gap on India, especially looking at the role of family remains significant (Iakovleva, Kolvereid and Stephan, 2011). This study aims to add to the body of knowledge by covering the existing gap in the literature and identifying the role that Indian families play in developing the entrepreneurial intentions of its youth.

This chapter will provide a background and rationale to this research. This will be followed by a discussion on the specific aims of this study. Finally, the significance of the study and the motivations behind it will be discussed.

¹ This includes an emerging middle class of 50 million people with a disposable income of between Rs. 200,000 (USD 2,976) to Rs 1 million (USD 14,880) (Beinhocker et al, 2007; Meyer and Birdsall, 2012).

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH

The prediction of entrepreneurial behaviour has been the subject of several studies over the past years. It began with the aim of identifying certain specific 'personality traits' or characteristics that could be associated with entrepreneurial activity (McClelland, 1967). Following this, studies tried to link entrepreneurial activity to factors such as age, gender, experience and religion amongst others, which have been collectively termed as 'demographic' variables (Robinson et al., 1991; Reynolds, Hay and Camp, 1999; Storey, 1982). Both these approaches were successful to a certain extent in showing significant relationships between specific traits and demographic factors with entrepreneurial behaviour. However, the main drawback of these approaches was their limited predictive and explanatory capacity due to the presence of several methodological and conceptual caveats (Gartner, 1985; Robinson et al., 1991; Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud 2000; Liñán and Chen, 2009).

In the last decade a lot of entrepreneurial literature has approached entrepreneurship as a way of thinking that emphasizes opportunities over threat (Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000; Kuratko, 2016) and a process that takes place over time (Kyro and Carrier, 2005; McMullen and Dimov, 2013). This opportunity identification process is clearly considered to be a voluntary and conscious decision, that is, an intentional decision (Fayolle and Gailly, 2005; Kolvereid, 1996; Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000). As per the field of psychology, the analysis of intentions is the most logical way of predicting any given behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Sutton, 1998; Levie and Autio, 2008; Fini et al, 2009; Alvarez et al, 2011). Intentions are considered to be the most successful and effective predictor of the behaviour in a variety of situations including consumer and leisure decisions (e.g., Warshaw and Davis, 1984), academic activities and achievement (e.g., Manstead and van Eekelen, 1998; Sheeran, Orbell, and Trafimow, 1999), sex, contraception and abortion (e.g. Davidson and Morrison, 1983; Smetana and Adler, 1980;

Warshaw and Davis, 1984), illicit drug use (e.g., Conner, Sherlock, and Orbell, 1998), occupational choice (LaRocco, 1983), driving behaviour (Stradling and Parker, 1997), and prosocial behaviours such as blood donation (e.g., Warshaw, Calantone, and Joyce, 1986).

Following this line of analysis many authors have recognised intentions as an important theoretical perspective for not only understanding and explaining entrepreneurial behaviour but also predicting it (Walker, Jeger and Kopecki, 2013; Sanchez, 2011; Fini et al, 2009; Kyro and Carrier, 2005; Fayolle and Gailly, 2005; Krueger, 1993; Wiklund and Shepherd, 2003; Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000; Tubbs and Ekeberg, 1991; Ajzen, 1991). Also, university students have been a commonly used sample in several of these studies to test and develop entrepreneurial intention models in the past (Sanchez, 2011; Kyro and Carrier, 2005; Linān and Chen, 2009; Souitaris, Zerbinati, and Al-Laham, 2007). Hence, by adopting a similar approach this study looked at entrepreneurial behaviour from the perspective of entrepreneurial intentions of the youth.

The GEM report (2006) has established 14 parameters which include inter alia Government policies and programs, education and training and cultural and social support, which form an important ‘framework’ for promoting entrepreneurship in any nation (Minniti, Bygrave and Autio, 2006). The 2002, GEM report on India showed that India’s ratings on 10 of these 14 factors were below the global average. Cultural and Social support to entrepreneurship were highlighted as part of those 10 factors which were below average in India as compared to global standards. Additionally, when the ratings of these factors from the 2002 report were compared to those of the 2001 report, it was seen that while factors such as government programs, financial support and lack of physical infrastructure had improved, rating of the cultural facilitation of entrepreneurship in India had not improved. In fact, in the 2002 report the ‘cultural and social norms’ factor was the second most addressed issue found to be impacting Indian entrepreneurship (Manimala,

Gopal and Sridhar, 2002). Moreover, the 2014 GEM report highlighted that for a country like India that is driven by social-norm a favourable attitude towards entrepreneurship is required to develop an environment conducive to entrepreneurial growth (Shukla et al, 2016). The 2013 entrepreneurial attitude survey conducted by GEM showed that India ranked lower than other factor-driven economies and BRIC nations on the desirability of entrepreneurial careers, the social status and respect given to entrepreneurs and entrepreneurial careers (Saraf and Banerjee, 2013).

Earliest socialisation of an individual begins within the family, in accordance to what is acceptable in the society, and is the responsibility of one's family. The rules and regulations that exist in any family unit influence the behavioural outcomes of its members and thus often have an impact on the life decisions of the individual (Haralambos and Heald, 1980; Morrison, 2000; Pallone, Hurley and Rickard, 1973). Especially from an entrepreneurial point of view, traits such as innovativeness, risk-taking and autonomy are usually instilled in an individual during the socialisation process, by the interactions and relationships, within the family unit at an early age (Gibb, 1996). Parents and other close family members, who are important role models to their children, have a significant role in developing the personality of the young individuals of the family, and play a crucial role in influencing the decision making of these individuals (Miller, 1985).

It is therefore surprising that most of the prevailing literature on entrepreneurship has given little attention to the impact a family can have on one's entrepreneurial intentions (Woodward, 1988; Liao and Welsch, 2001; Evald, Klyver and Svendsen, 2006). Although, certain authors have pointed out the effect of family background and economic status on ventures and the role and importance of family members in start-up teams (Ruef, Aldrich and Carter, 2003; Hundley, 2006; Aldrich, Renzuli and Langton, 1998; Hout and Rosen, 2000), what influence this can have on the development of intentions has not been

discussed in sufficient detail. It is this gap in the literature that the researcher is hoping to exploit.

The researcher attempts to establish the importance of understanding and assessing the relationship between family and entrepreneurship and the impact that it can have on entrepreneurial intentions of the youth.

1.3 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

Based on identification of the importance of family in promoting and growing entrepreneurial activity, the aim of this research project was to study the influence of family and assess the role it plays in affecting the entrepreneurship intentions of the youth of India.

The basis of this study lies in the theoretical setting of the Theory of Planned Behaviour that highlights certain antecedents that are important for understanding the intentions that lie behind entrepreneurial behaviour. The overall aim of this study, as mentioned above, was to assess the antecedents of these already defined antecedents and attempt to establish their sources in order to help increase the predictability and understanding of entrepreneurial intentions and behaviour in young individuals.

With this perspective in mind, the main objectives of this thesis were to firstly develop an in-depth and detailed understanding of the Indian familial system in order to understand the dynamics that exist within a family and the relationships between the members. This study used qualitative methods such as ethnographic studies of different families to collect rich data to enhance the researchers understanding of Indian families and their effect on the youth. This process of data collection, along with a detailed review of the literature guided the researcher towards the development of specific hypotheses and an empirical framework which was further quantitatively tested by a surveys of university students.

Following the qualitative study, the second main objective of this study was to make the results of the ethnography generalisable and applicable to the larger Indian context and establish family as an antecedent to entrepreneurial intentions. The aim was to develop a model that includes family as one of the key factors for predicting entrepreneurial intentions while using the Theory of Planned Behaviour as its conceptual framework. For this purpose, the empirical framework developed at the end of the first

round of qualitative studies was tested using a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered to final year university students randomly selected from various colleges in the University of Delhi. The questionnaire helped to identify the various aspects of family and determine how they influence the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals via their ability to influence each of the three predictors of intentions as per the Theory of Planned Behaviour.

Hence, the key aims of this study are:

1. Develop an in-depth and detailed understanding of the dynamics of an Indian family, its functioning and the relationship between the members, by ethnographic analysis of six families.
2. Identify the main themes common to the studied families that have an influence on the entrepreneurial intentions of the younger generation of the family.
3. Develop a model linking the role played by the family with the three main antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions as described in the Theory of Planned Behaviour.
4. Develop a structured questionnaire to test the hypotheses developed following the ethnographic studies of Indian families.
5. Administer the questionnaire to a large student population of New Delhi in order to verify the role played by family as determined by the qualitative study.

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE AND MOTIVATION BEHIND THE STUDY

India has been one of the fastest growing economies for over quarter of a century with a stable growth rate and rising foreign exchange reserves (Saraf and Banerjee, 2013). However, in a country with a population exceeding 1 billion and with an able workforce of 458 million, only 8 million individuals are employed in the private sector (Gupta, 2012). This shows the potential that is still available within the country, which can be exploited by the spread of entrepreneurial values and culture.

Two factors, namely Business Density Index and the Entry Rate, have been described as indicators of the entrepreneurial activity in a country. It has been seen that in India the entry rate, which is a key factor for entrepreneurship, stands at 5%, lower than the average rate across developing countries and significantly below countries such as Germany and UK, where it is 20% (Gupta, 2012). This once again points towards the need to develop an entrepreneurial culture in India to promote its global economic position. Additionally, the Total Early Stage Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA)², which is one of the key measures of entrepreneurship in a country as per the GEM report, of India which is around 9.9%, is lower than the average for other efficiency driven economies and also the lowest in the group of factor driven economies³. A high TEA is usually indicative of a high level of dynamic entrepreneurial activity in a country. Moreover, India shows the highest proportion of necessity-driven entrepreneurs rather than those driven by opportunity (Shukla et al, 2016), highlighting an environment and social set-up not viable and conducive towards entrepreneurship.

² Total Early Stage Entrepreneurship includes the percentage of the total adult population of a country that is involved in starting a new business or running a business that is less than three and a half years old (GEM, 2013).

³ *Factor Driven* economies are considered to be those in the first stage of economic growth and development. Their growth is dependent to a large extent on their natural endowments and low-skilled labour. The second stage of economic growth includes countries that are *Efficiency-Driven* economies. These economies have moved from low-skilled labour to more efficient ways of production, have improved quality of products due to increasing wages (GEM, 2013; Zhang, Kinser and Shi, 2014).

In order to sustain a growing economy and entrepreneurial activity, it is essential to cultivate the entrepreneurial spirit in the future generations of a country, since it is them who will move on to become the future business owners, leaders and entrepreneurs. The GEM report (2014) pointed out in a survey conducted by them, that Indian Early-stage entrepreneurs were more pessimistic than early-stage entrepreneurs in any other similar level economy about the success of their ventures. This indicates that it is crucial to understand the factors that influence the youth of today and how these factors can be used to infuse greater entrepreneurial intention in the youth and motivate them to look more positively towards entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial careers.

With the consistent rise in the global youth population, and more young individuals joining the global world force, it is estimated that the world will require at least half a billion new jobs by 2030 (Shukla et al, 2016). Currently it is estimated that there are 73 million unemployed youth in the world, and this is only expected to become a bigger problem over time. This highlights the need to stress on developing entrepreneurial intentions in the youth of a country, and is especially more relevant in the case of India since 65% of the Indian population consists of those below the age of 35 years (Shukla et al, 2016).

India's advantage of having one of the world's largest and youngest youth population is expected to last till about 2050, hence a big challenge that lies ahead for India is to be able to effectively tap into this workforce (Shukla et al, 2016). Latest figures estimate that 49% of the total unemployed population of India is made up of a young workforce or the youth. Additionally, almost 36% of these are graduates (Sinha, 2013). This suggest that increasing and promoting entrepreneurship might be a viable option for a country like India in order to help create more jobs, competition and revitalise the economy.

Hence keeping in mind the above factors highlighting the importance of entrepreneurship in India, this study aims to highlight the role of family in promoting entrepreneurial intentions in the youth of India, which can be used to maximise the benefits of entrepreneurship for the economy via structural interventions by the policy makers. Also by understanding the concerns, attitudes and behavioural patterns of society towards entrepreneurship, it will help the researcher to understand the societal point of view. This understanding along with the help of appropriate structural interventions can help to motivate the present young generation who have entrepreneurial aspirations but are constantly challenged and influenced by societal and familial pressures. Furthermore, the researcher was personally motivated to investigate the prevailing ideology towards entrepreneurship amongst the youth of India, since he himself has faced the lack of support from his own family, and also experienced barriers and obstacles due to the perceptions, impressions and the lack of support meted out to those coming from non-business families by private and government investors.

1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

Following this introductory chapter, the rest of the thesis has been divided into eight chapters. The second chapter provides a detailed review of the literature on the key concepts that have been explored in this study. This includes a discussion on the emergence of entrepreneurship and its importance, the various economic and non-economic factors that can influence entrepreneurship and finally the importance of family in influencing entrepreneurship via affecting the development of the right intentions and a discussion on the importance and relevance of this study in India.

The third chapter explains the research philosophy and approach that has been followed for this study. It will provide a discussion on the middle-range thinking approach following a mix of inductive and deductive research techniques to approach the topic. The importance and relevance of such a mixed-methods approach for this research will be discussed. And the various philosophies, paradigms and approaches that have been followed in this study will be described.

Moving ahead, the fourth chapter describes the qualitative research methods that have been utilised for the first phase of this study. A detailed discussion on how the samples were identified and accessed, use of ethnographies for data collection along with their advantages, disadvantages and suitability to this research will be discussed. This will be followed by a discussion on the process undertaken for data collection and analysis in chapter five. This chapter discusses the use of thematic analysis for analysing qualitative data and also include the results of the ethnographic study conducted on six families in New Delhi and will conclude with a brief discussion of the results.

Chapter six provides a discussion on the quantitative methods used in this thesis. The chapter includes a discussion on the use of structured questionnaires for collecting data, the process of formation of the questionnaire and its administration, the analysis strategy and the use of Structured Equation Modelling for analysing the results will be

discussed. The final results chapter, chapter seven, discusses the results obtained following the survey. The empirical model and hypotheses developed following the qualitative study will be tested. The chapter will conclude with a brief discussion of the results obtained following structural equation modelling, and a final model will be presented.

Chapter 8 will be the final discussion chapter that provides an analysis of the results obtained from the qualitative and quantitative studies. The results will be discussed in references to the existing literature in order to be able to identify the key role that family plays in influencing the entrepreneurial intentions of the youth of India. This final chapter will end by providing a conclusion to this research, highlight some of the limitations of the study and also discuss future work that will be carried out to further the results obtained in this study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship has been defined as a behavioural characteristic of individuals wherein, certain skills and attitudes possessed by individuals make them think out of the box and act in entrepreneurial ways (Dees, 1998; Barreto, 2013). Entrepreneurs have the ability to look out for change and to exploit it into an opportunity. This change could correspond to either the economic, social or political spheres of any economy (Schumpeter, 1934; Cunningham and Lischeron, 1991; Toma, Grigore and Marinescu, 2014). Traditionally, the role of an entrepreneur has been defined as someone who fills in the prevailing gaps in the market and brings about economic growth (Wennekers and Thurik, 1999). However, in recent times entrepreneurs have also started dwelling on the prevailing social inequalities and play a very important role in society. They believe in using innovative business ideas for creating and sustaining social values, bringing about social cohesion and tackling issues that plague any society (Weerawardena and Mort, 2006; Parker, 1998; Choi and Majumdar, 2014). As is evident from the brief discussion above, there is some debate on who is considered an entrepreneur with scholars having different views and opinions on who they would consider to be an entrepreneur (Parker, 2002). While the term entrepreneur might be a common vocabulary for most people, it occupies an important position for research in several academic fields such as psychology, sociology, business, management and history amongst others. One of the commonly discussed debates is the one between Schumpeter and Kirzner, and their differing views on entrepreneurs (Hébert and Link, 1989). Schumpeter, defined an entrepreneur from the perspective of someone bringing about creative destruction. He suggested that individuals with entrepreneurial character would create a product or service that would break the cycle

of routine activities and would disrupt the existing market. This could then be directly linked to the development of new markets and eventually overall economic growth, as discussed in the sections that follow. Based on this, Schumpeter visualised an entrepreneur to be a leader, who is then imitated and followed by several others (Schumpeter, 1934). However, in contrast Kirzner suggests that more important than creating a disequilibrium in the market, are individuals who are able to recognize the existing disequilibrium and come up with creative suggestions that help the market move towards equilibrium (Kirzner, 1973). Kirzner highlights that entrepreneurship helps to make markets move towards equilibrium as compared to Schumpeter who believes that entrepreneurship shakes up the existing market to bring in disequilibrium (Kirzner, 1999). While superficially these two might sound like very contrasting opinions, several scholars saw these as complementary views. Hébert and Link (1982) suggested that while a Schumpeterian entrepreneur might be responsible for creating disequilibrium in the market, a Kirznerian entrepreneur would work on this disequilibrium and move towards equilibrium – hence making both these entrepreneurs different parts of the same process. A similar view was provided by Boudreaux (1994) who highlighted that since both these entrepreneurs were aiming to make the market realise some unfulfilled potential, they were complementary to each other. Choi (1995) looked at this debate from the perspective of the glass half-full or half-empty, and suggested that it was only a matter of different perspectives that made the Schumpeterian and Kirznerian entrepreneurs different, which were in fact not different to each other at all. Although there were others who claimed irreconcilable differences between the views of the two (Boehm, 1990; Loasby, 1989). In this study, the researcher looks at entrepreneurs as agents of change – including both Schumpeterian and Kirznerian characteristics. Under this study any individual that both creates a change in the market or society and discovers an existing opportunity for improvement was considered as an entrepreneur.

To add to the debate surrounding the definition of an entrepreneur is the debate in the literature distinguishing entrepreneurship from self-employment. One common factor that ties entrepreneurs and the self-employed together is the risk-taking and their position as the residual claimant that is involved in both these areas, and this was one of the reasons why labour economists have considered the two to be synonymous (Barzel, 1987; Parker, 2002). However, the economists have argued that only those individuals that employ others should be considered as entrepreneurs, and the remaining as self-employed (Parker, 2004). This again was contested by individuals who claim that considering only those individuals that employ others as entrepreneurs would disregard entrepreneurship in social settings and even corporate intrapreneurs (Parker, 2002; Parker, 2004). When it comes to self-employment, there is somewhat more consensus on who can be considered self-employed. Katz (1992) highlighted it as an individual's decision to either be a waged/salaried individual or be self-employed. However, the only gap this leaves is for individuals who choose to be employed as a salaried individual, but are self-employed in their free time. In fact, a large number of new business founders, chose to run their businesses part-time while continuing to be employed (Carter et al, 1996; Delmar and Davidsson, 2000). In this study, self-employed and entrepreneurs are taken to be tantamount, and simply include individuals that are business owners whether full-time or part-time, and irrespective of whether they employ others or run their business on their own. This is similar to that followed in other studies such as Wennekers and Thurik (1999) and Kolvereid and Isaksen (2006).

The process of entrepreneurship and new venture creation has received increasing attention and interest, as a result of globalisation of business activities and the reduced political and economic barriers between countries (Thomas and Mueller, 2000; Norback, Persson and Douhan, 2014). Political and regulatory barriers include such as complexity of forming and registering companies, structural policies surrounding labour markets, tax

design, bankruptcy laws and even laws around exit of companies can hinder the growth of entrepreneurship. In addition to this, economic barriers such as lack of finance for start-ups and unstable capital markets can also be a disincentive for entrepreneurs (Boettke and Coyne, 2003). Policy makers and practitioners can impact the entrepreneurial process by directly addressing these barriers by improving, for example, the amount of venture capital available, appropriate educational programmes, providing tax-relief and government subsidies. In addition to these direct effects, the institutional structure of the country such as security of private property, legal system and unregulated market prices all contribute towards either the promoting or obstructing entrepreneurship (Sobel, Clarke and Lee, 2007). Hence, when favourable political and economic environments are present, entrepreneurial individuals are more likely to make use of such a conducive environment to engage in new wealth creation by entrepreneurship. While in the presence of political and economic barriers, the entrepreneurial spirit is often curtailed (Sobel, 2006), reduced barriers in terms of unrestricted and free entry into new markets, suitable tax structures and free movement of talent and capital between countries can contribute towards promotion of entrepreneurship (Sobel, Clarke and Lee, 2007). For instance, the changing economic landscape for entrepreneurship in India saw reductions in corporate tax and the tax relief period for start-ups was increased almost 2.5 times to reach 7 years (India Budget 2017, PWC). These changes, along with others, helped India jump almost 30 positions ahead in the World Bank's ease of doing business index, making it more attractive to potential entrepreneurs (worldbank.org, 2017). The changing environment in India has led to an improvement of the overall entrepreneurship score that is provided to countries by the Global Entrepreneurship and Development Institute, with India's score improving from 24.9 to 25.8 in just one year (GEDI, 2017).

The importance of entrepreneurship for policy makers varies from country to country. It is well established that entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship play different roles

in different countries depending on which phase of economic development the country is in (Wennekers et al, 2005). The shift from a developing to a developed country usually entails more emphasis on sophistication of the service sector, increased research and development to improve and expand the service sector, improvement in knowledge and opportunities and an increase in innovativeness leading to creation of new jobs and eventually economic growth (Porter et al, 2002; Iakovleva et al, 2011). For highly developed and industrialised countries such as the USA, entrepreneurship acts as an incubator for innovation and helps to revitalise stagnant industries (Baumol, 1990; Reynolds, 1987). In lesser developed countries such as Asian and Latin American countries, as well as India, entrepreneurship helps to stimulate economic growth and increasing job opportunities (Harper, 1991; Gibb, 1993; Naudé, 2013). The mid-20th century saw a large number of countries in Africa and Asia gain independence from their colonizers and began the process of development of their economy. From policies such as import substitution to export promotion, several different industrial policies were put in place to help stabilize the economies of these countries (Easterly, 2001; Sachs, 2005). One of the policies that became popular in helping in the development was promotion of entrepreneurship and developing the private enterprises within the country. Improving the business and investment opportunities for entrepreneurship within these developing countries became an important feature for national governments as well as international organizations. For developing countries like India, where necessity-based entrepreneurship was already prevalent due to limited opportunities, the development of the country became closely linked to promoting opportunity-based entrepreneurship due to its ability to bring about overall growth in the economy (Acs and Audretsch, 2003; Acs and Virgill, 2010). Hence, in these countries since the markets were underdeveloped, the role of the entrepreneur was to fill in this gap in the market while their counterparts in developed countries were more focussed on adding competitive advantage (Leff, 1979). It

is also interesting to highlight that in developing countries entrepreneurship and small-medium enterprises are often taken to mean the same and entrepreneurship also often includes the informal sector, which includes both necessity- and opportunity based entrepreneurs (Acs and Virgill, 2010). Whereas, as discussed in the sections that follow, in developed countries such as the USA, the role of an entrepreneur was related more to reviving the stagnating industries and adding competitive advantage. Another key distinction behind the kind of entrepreneurship seen in developed versus developing countries is the type of entrepreneurship that is prevalent. While developing countries like India show a high amount of necessity-driven entrepreneurship, developed countries will show a higher prevalence of opportunity-driven entrepreneurs and high-expectation entrepreneurs (Minniti, Bygrave and Autio, 2006; Sternberg and Wennekers, 2005). In fact, in developed countries high-expectation entrepreneurship, that are newly developed start-ups with small size but high availability of idle resources, are considered to be the main contributors to the GDP of the country (Autio, 2005; Valliere and Peterson, 2009). Apart from these, the differences between entrepreneurship in developing countries like India and developed countries like the US, also exist at a social level. In India, entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship are still not provided a high status in society, with majority of the population not considering entrepreneurship to be a good career option (GEM, 2016). However, the difference in attitude is evident in developed countries like the US, where more than 70% of the adult population give a high status to entrepreneurs in the society (GEM, 2016).

The following chapter provides a detailed discussion on the effects of various factors on entrepreneurship. It begins with a brief history about the growth of entrepreneurship in the western world and how this influenced the economy of these regions, highlighting the importance of various non-economic factors, apart from the well-established economic factors, that affect entrepreneurial activity. The Theory of Planned

Behaviour that forms the backbone of this research will be discussed in detail, along with its drawbacks and scope for improvement. This is followed by a discussion on the effect that family has on the youth and how it can influence their career decisions and hence ultimately their entrepreneurial intentions. The chapter concludes with a brief discussion on India and the reason behind the choice of India as the country under investigation in this study.

2.2 GROWTH OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Karl Marx believed that the world economies would be controlled and dominated by large firms (Wennekers and Thurik, 1999). The economic growth of a country was believed to be affected by the economic activity created by large and established firms within the economy. It was believed that the large firms that dominate the economic scene of a country make a contribution to the prosperity of the country by directly impacting the GDP and job opportunities (Reynolds, Hay and Camp, 1999). However, due to the restructuring of the economic sector worldwide with down-sizing and shutdown of the large firms in the 1970s, the importance of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) first emerged and rose during that period (Acs, Audretsch and Evans, 1994). The rise in the small business sector became evident when the percentage of large firms of the Fortune 500 dropped from 20% in the 1970 to 8.5% in 1996 (Acs, Carlsson and Karlsson, 1999). Since then, the small business sector and population of the self-employed workforce within this sector has been consistently rising. In the US, 40% of the labour force in 1990 worked in firms that employed less than 100 individuals, in the EU, in 1998 this figure was close to 55% (Aldrich, Renzuli and Langton, 1998). By 2002, SMEs accounted for 90% of businesses and provided 50-60% employment worldwide. Similar effect were seen in developing countries, which started promoting entrepreneurship via their SME sector (Raynard and Forstater, 2002).

2.2.1 Entrepreneurship and Economic growth

Studies in the recent past have indicated that the economic growth of a country is only partially explained by the economic activity of the large firms (Reynolds, Hay and Camp, 1999). A significant portion of the effect on the economic prosperity of a country is now also attributed to the level of entrepreneurial activity present within it (Ács et al., 2013; Szirmai et al., 2011; Naudé, 2011; Braunerhjelm, 2010; Caree and Thurik, 2010; Walzer, 2009). The importance of entrepreneurship for economic growth is widely accepted and established since the times of Schumpeter in the 1950s. The role played by entrepreneurship in overcoming unemployment and poverty has been highlighted by many economists (Zahra, 1999; Storey, 1982; Ucbasaran, 2004; Wennekers and Thurik, 1999; Ghani, Kerr and O'connell, 2014). However, in reality the relationship between economic growth and entrepreneurship might not be as straightforward. High levels of entrepreneurship are also signs of the inability of the economy to produce sufficient amount of conventional occupational opportunities (Acs, 2006). In addition, if while calculating entrepreneurship levels all forms of self-employment, informal and formal, are included then it could also suggest that the economy may have some barriers that are preventing individuals from creating more formal businesses (Acs, 2006; Valliere and Peterson, 2009). Therefore, in some conditions higher levels of entrepreneurial activity in the country may even point towards lagging growth. Hence for this purpose it is important to be able to distinguish the different forms of entrepreneurship and their relevance.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor have been studying the effect of different forms of entrepreneurship on development (Reynolds et al 2002). They identify two main types – firstly *necessity-driven entrepreneurship* in which individuals are driven to entrepreneurship due to the lack of real opportunities in the economy and do so only to make ends meet. These individuals will not continue being entrepreneurs if the presence of better opportunities. Hence, such form of entrepreneurial activity cannot be positively

linked to economic growth and development (Acs and Varga, 2005). The second type of entrepreneurship is the *opportunity-driven entrepreneurship*. These individuals start entrepreneurial ventures with their own choice in order to exploit some gaps or opportunities in the market (Williams, 2008; Deli, 2011; Reynolds et al, 2002). The entrepreneurial process for such individuals is a well-thought and planned behaviour. It is this form of active entrepreneurship that is important for economic growth and will continue to be the main object of investigation in this study (Acs et al, 2005; Acs, Desai and Hessels, 2008).

Wennekers and Thurik (1999) suggested that the connection between entrepreneurship and economic growth can be drawn by explaining certain intermediate variables, at the individual, firm and macro level as discussed below (Figure 2.1).

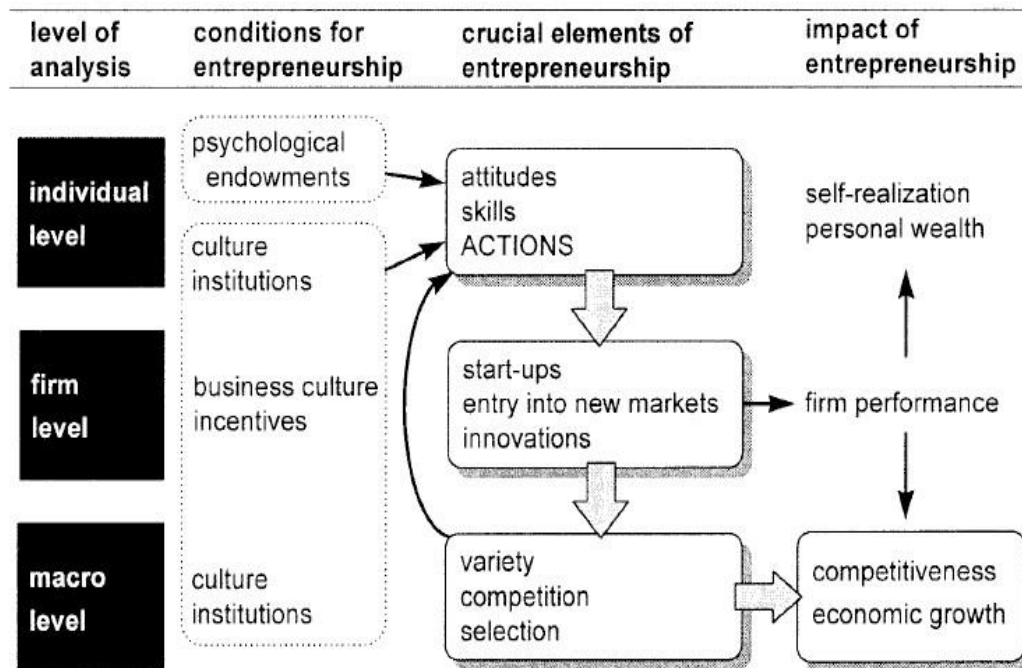


Figure 2.1: Entrepreneurship and Economic Growth (Adapted from Wennekers and Thurik, 1999)

One of the characteristics of entrepreneurs at an individual level is “innovative thinking” (Lee and Peterson, 2001). This leads to the formation of new companies, generation of new ideas and development of new products and services, as well as an increase in personal wealth for the individual (Drucker, 2014). However, at a firm level entrepreneurship takes a corporate role following the same approach of newness and innovativeness by forming subsidiaries, joint ventures and other such vehicles of growth to enter new markets and develop new products and services. At a macro level, with a variety of new products in the market, a substantial increase in market competition is seen (Baron and Tang, 2011). There is positive selection of valuable products and services and the less productive start-ups are forced to exit (Wennekers and Thurik, 1999). The turbulence created in the market by the constantly changing and developing entrepreneurial environment results in continuous regeneration, known as “business churning” or “creative destruction”, which was never seen in earlier traditional static

market economies (Audretsch and Acs, 1994; Reynolds, Hay and Camp, 1999). The competition in the market that develops due to increased entrepreneurial activity helps to cope with the quickly globalising and constantly changing economy (Ucbasaran, 2004).

This entrepreneurial activity depends, firstly on the presence of entrepreneurial opportunities, which are influenced by the environment provided by the government policies and institutions within the country. A conducive environment for entrepreneurship would be one where entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship flourish (Krueger, Linan and Nabi, 2013). Such an environment can be promoted by government regulatory bodies and institutions that help in the generation of opportunities based on their policies on trade, competition and foreign investment. Additionally, the Government through its various institutions within the country can help in the development of a rewards and incentives systems, which along with favourable social norms, increase the likelihood of new venture creation (Peng and Zhou, 2005). Secondly, entrepreneurial activity requires the presence of entrepreneurial intentions in the individuals of a society (Delmar and Shane, 2003). When individuals with entrepreneurial intentions are exposed to an opportunity in the presence of a conducive environment, entrepreneurial activity will be maximized (Reynolds, Hay and Camp, 1999; Krueger, 2007). For example, historically countries such as the former Soviet Union were known for their socialist policies and there was a low tolerance for failure. This resulted in an environment where entrepreneurship was not encouraged and hence not conducive to entrepreneurs and their ambitions (Henry, Hill and Leitsch, 2003). Another study by Gupta et al (2014) showed that the absence of suitable institutional set-ups in countries like Brazil and South Korea were responsible for less favourable attitude towards entrepreneurship in them. Additionally, the substantial progress made by China was attributed to the favourable regulatory framework and the improved government rules and policies to encourage investment in new opportunities.

2.3 WHAT ARE ‘ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS’? WHY IS IT IMPORTANT TO STUDY ‘INTENTIONS’?

One concept that ties most new and emerging ventures together is the intentionality of the behaviour behind venture formation, and most of the observed entrepreneurial activity usually stems from intentional planned behaviour (Krueger, Reilley and Carsrud, 2000). In the past, various theoretical models have been developed to describe and explain the process of new venture creation. For example, Shapero (1975) suggested that a prospective entrepreneur will act based on their prior experience and their perception of the existing opportunities. However, even the process of identifying opportunities is an intentional process and hence such models should be preceded by those that first look at the development of intentions. Another example of a theoretical model looking at the entrepreneurial process is by Gartner (1985) who describes the entrepreneurial process as a combination of four factors, namely the personal characteristics, the competitive entry strategies, the environmental push and pull factors and lastly, the actions that the individual takes to bring the venture into existence. However, even when individuals with certain traits respond to the environment by starting a new venture, they have usually thought about the process and hence their intentions have been activated. These along with other models by Moore (1986), Krueger and Brazeal (1994) have suggested that the entrepreneurial process is dependent not only on the economic, political and social factors but also on the entrepreneurial predisposition of the individuals. As discussed with the previous examples, while each of these theoretical explanations are important in the entrepreneurial process, the most consistent factor is the activation of an individual's intentions prior to starting any entrepreneurship related activity (Bird, 1988; Katz and Gartner, 1988). Hence, while predicting entrepreneurial activity and behaviour has been a consistent challenge so far, the best predictor of entrepreneurial activity and behaviour has been the intentions of the individual (Alvarez, Urbano and Coduras, 2011; Alvarez et al,

2011; Levie and Autio, 2008; Pfeifer, Benšić and Sarlija, 2005, Walker, Jeger and Kopecki, 2013). Most of these models are based on the inherent ability of entrepreneurs to identify gaps and needs in the market and convert them into an opportunity. Hence, the focus will be on opportunity-driven entrepreneurs, rather than necessity-driven entrepreneurs.

Intentions form an integral part in the study of human actions and behaviours, and even more so when studied in the context of managerial literature (Tubbs and Ekeberg, 1991; Sutton, 1998). Several different definitions for intentions can be found in the literature. Bird (1988) defined it as a ‘state of mind’, which helps individuals to focus their attention, and hence their actions, towards a specific goal. Tubbs and Ekeberg (1991) portray intentions as a ‘cognitive representation’ of the objective an individual is striving towards as well as the actions that are used to obtain the objective. Another interesting definition was that given by Ajzen (1991) where he described intentions as motivations that influence behaviour, as the motivations become stronger the chances of the behaviour occurring also increase. Keeping these above definitions in mind, along with those of several other scholars, Fini et al (2009, p.4) defined Entrepreneurial intentions as “*a cognitive representation of the actions to be implemented by individuals to either establish new independent ventures.*” Therefore, intentions are not only important to predict and understand individual behaviour, but can also be used to predict the outcome of organisations and firms. As a result of this, the capability to recognise and accurately predict intentions becomes a crucial factor for managers and entrepreneurs (Tubbs and Ekeberg, 1991).

It has been recognised that the most important and direct antecedent of any behaviour is the intention to perform it (Ajzen, 1985; Triandis, 1980). While human behaviour can often be unconscious and unintended, the process of starting a new venture is always a conscious and intentional act, hence making the study of entrepreneurial

intentions extremely essential for distinguishing between potential entrepreneurs and individuals with entrepreneurial potential (Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud 2000; Fini et al, 2009). Developing models to study entrepreneurial intentions provide scholars the chance to explain entrepreneurial behaviour (Drennan, Kennedy and Renfrow, 2005).

Several authors have pointed out the importance of studying entrepreneurial intentions, as they are often a means for not only understanding but also predicting entrepreneurial behaviour (Tubbs and Ekeberg, 1991; Ajzen, 1991; Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000; Wiklund and Shepherd, 2003; Fini et al, 2009). Intentions, therefore, act as intermediating factors between the actual act of new venture creation and other exogenous variables (Autio et al, 1997). Understanding intentions is absolutely crucial in order to be able to understand the other antecedents of entrepreneurial behaviour. Lastly, they also assist in characterising phenomenon associated with entrepreneurship such as opportunity scanning, sources of ideas and converting business ideas into reality (Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000; Davidsson, 1995).

While entrepreneurial ideas develop from a right mix of inspiration and motivation, they are manifested only if the right 'intentions' are present (Delmar and Shane, 2003). In the context of new venture creation, the impact of intentions is found to be strongest during the nascent stages of the organisation, when the role of all other factors such as policy, stakeholders and politics is limited. This implies that the overall outcome and the final direction a new business venture is going to take, depends to a large extent on the intentions of its founder during the initial stages of business development (Fini et al, 2009; Bird, 1988). Not only is studying intention important for new business ventures, but it is an important factor to study in established businesses, as they can ultimately dictate the ventures future success or failure.

Mitchel (1981) explained that the intentions of an entrepreneur affect the organisation that they lead. Wiklund (2006) and Wiklund and Shepherd (2003) were

successful in showing that firms' performance is affected by the proactive and innovative actions and intentions of its founding entrepreneurs. Hence, having established the importance of entrepreneurial intentions, it is equally, if not more, important to acknowledge the factors that can trigger these intentions in individuals. In the following section the various factors that may influence entrepreneurial intentions have been discussed.

2.4 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS

Researchers are now turning their attention to developing more comprehensive and inclusive models for predicting intentions, which can be used to identify indirect factors that can influence desirability and feasibility of entrepreneurial behaviour (Lawrence and Hamilton, 1997; Davidsson, 1995; Ohe and Ohe, 1996; Drennan, Kennedy and Renfrow, 2005; Sequeira, Mueller and McGee, 2007). Additionally, scholars have highlighted the importance of studying the factors that can help develop and enhance entrepreneurial intentions in individuals in order to help the government develop policies and programs to support an entrepreneurial culture (Fini et al, 2009).

Initially, Bird (1988) broadly grouped these factors into two macro categories, namely, the individual and the contextual domain. The individual domain consists of factors such as personal traits, demographics, prior knowledge, skills and psychological characteristics. The contextual domain includes environmental factors, support and organisational factors. Thomas and Mueller (2000) and Pendergast (2004) linked personality factors such as innovation and need for achievement to entrepreneurial behaviour. Prior skill and knowledge as a way of predicting entrepreneurship was suggested by Shane and Khurana (2003) and Wiklund and Shepherd (2003). Government and environmental support in terms of funding schemes, tax policies and other support

system have also been strong contenders in the race of factors leading to development of entrepreneurial behaviour (Lerner, 1999; Fini et al, 2009).

Another important factor, that is believed to have an influence on the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals, but has so far received very little attention, is the role that family plays in affecting the basic entrepreneurial process (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003). Despite the dearth of in-depth literature, the family context has been found to effect and enhance the entrepreneurial awareness, attitude and capabilities of young individuals (Gupta et al, 2009). Gupta et al (2009) focussed on identifying the role of gender stereotypes in the intentions to become entrepreneurs, their study showed that having one or more immediate family members involved in entrepreneurship increases the entrepreneurial intentions of young individuals. Other studies have independently looked that the involvement of family members and social networks in helping in the development of entrepreneurial intentions via family related variables such as background experience, advice and financial support (Bagheri and Pihie, 2010; Anderson, Jack and Drakopoulou, 2005; Robson and Bennet, 2000). Greene and Saridakis (2007) recognise, although not in sufficient detail, the importance of family as an informal source of information and advice for budding entrepreneurs. However, none of these studies attempt to breakdown the term family – that is either try and identify whether this effect is coming from specific individuals within the family such as father, mother, grandfather and so on, and additionally try and dissect out whether the support that they offer is a psychological support or something more tangible such as financial support or whether it is due to the broader social pressure members within the family feel, or in fact even a mix of all of these, that make them either favour or disfavour entrepreneurship. This study aims to get a deeper understanding of family, by looking at individual members and combining in one comprehensive model the various ways in which they can influence the decisions of young individuals within the family.

However, most of these factors discussed above have a convincing theoretical and empirical basis (Fini et al, 2009). Therefore, researchers have been trying to cover up this gap in the literature by following a multi-disciplinary approach. The most common and successful one has been the use of intention models, which are very commonly used in psychological studies (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). These models provide a comprehensive framework to researchers, which can now help to predict and explain entrepreneurial activity. They can help identify factors that have an effect on entrepreneurial intentions by influencing feasibility and desirability of the behaviour. The study of intention models has become well-accepted in entrepreneurship research now, and researchers are constantly trying to enhance these models to better predict the intention to start a business (Drennan, Kennedy and Renfrow, 2005; Zhao, Seibert and Hills, 2005; Sequeira, Mueller and McGee, 2007).

A review of the literature shows that researchers studying intention models have predominantly focused on three common theories, the theory of entrepreneurial event, theory of planned behaviour and the theory of social cognition.

Theory of entrepreneurial event suggests that the intentions of an individual to start a venture depend on the interaction between them and certain ‘contextual factors’ (Shapero and Sokol, 1982). These interactions then dictate the individual’s perception towards the feasibility and desirability of the behaviour and even the willingness of the individual to act according to the entrepreneurial intentions (Shapero and Sokol, 1982; Segal, Borgia and Schoenfeld, 2005).

Theory of planned behaviour through its socio-psychological perspective proposed that the intentions of individuals are dependent on three key components. Firstly, personal attitude, which determines how attractive the behaviour is to the individual. Secondly, subjective norms, which establishes the perceived social acceptance and support for the behaviour. And lastly, one’s ability to perform the behaviour. The interactions between

these factors and the strength of these interactions, is what determines the entrepreneurial intentions of an individual (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen, 2002).

Theory of social cognition placed a lot of stress on the ‘self-efficacy’ of individuals in establishing their entrepreneurial intentions. Self-efficacy is the belief that an individual has in their own abilities to perform a certain task. Therefore, if individuals consider themselves to be lacking entrepreneurial capabilities, they will avoid entrepreneurial careers and tasks (Bandura, 1986; Zhao, Seibert and Hills, 2005).

However, there have been several contradictory reports, especially when using the theory of entrepreneurial event and the theory of planned behaviour, as a result of which the entrepreneurship literature does not provide a comprehensive picture of the intentions leading to entrepreneurial process (Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000). The literature review also revealed that, by far, the most common theory used to assess entrepreneurial intentions, has been the theory of planned behaviour (Gird and Bagraim, 2008; Krueger and Carsrud, 1993; Autio et al, 1997; Autio et al, 2001; Rotefoss and Kolvereid, 2005; Souitaris, Zerbinati and Al-Laham, 2007; Basu and Virick, 2008; Schlaegel and Koenig, 2012; Hagger et al, 2016).

Linñan and Fayolle (2015) highlighted that the various strands and theories on entrepreneurial intentions began to converge into a single strand following a paper by Krueger and Carsrud (1993) that made the TPB a ‘reference theory’ for anyone trying to study entrepreneurial intentions. Additionally, Krueger and Brazeal (1994) attempted to link the TPB with the theory of entrepreneurial event and Boyd and Vozikis (1994) merged it with Bird’s model of entrepreneurial intentions. These various studies were responsible for establishing the TPB as the main theory for entrepreneurial intentions.

Therefore, the next section will describe the theory of planned behaviour in the context of entrepreneurship.

2.5 THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR IN THE CONTEXT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The central factor around which the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) is developed is the intentions that individuals have towards performing a specific behaviour (Ajzen, 1987; Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000). Intentions indicate the amount of effort and hard-work individuals are willing to dedicate in order to achieve the behaviour in question. In fact, as per the TPB, intentions are believed to be the main motivational factors that influence execution of behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

As discussed in the previous section on entrepreneurship and economic growth, the focus of this study remains on opportunity-driven entrepreneurs as the flagbearers of economic growth and development. For these individuals, entrepreneurship is always a planned, and usually intentional behaviour (Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000). Hence using the theory of planned behaviour is considered the most appropriate model for studying and predicting entrepreneurship (Gird and Bagraim, 2008; Krueger and Carsrud, 1993; Basu and Virick, 2008). In the context of entrepreneurship, the use of TPB is well suited especially since it focuses on the volitional control of the individual over behaviour, and also moderates the influence that external factors may have on entrepreneurial behaviour (Gird and Bagraim, 2008). As mentioned above, Ajzen (1991) suggested that intentions towards any behaviour can be predicted by studying the attitudes of the individual towards the behaviour, the subjective norms and the perceived behavioural control (Figure 2.2).

2.5.1. Perceived Behavioural Control

Perceived behavioural control (PBC), as an independent variable had first attracted a lot of attention as part of the social cognition models that were designed to predict health behaviours (Bandura, 1986). PBC defines the ease or difficulty of performing a specific

task from the individual's point of view (Terry and O'Leary, 1995; Sheeran, 2002). It reflects the actual control that the individual has over the performance of the specific behaviour. Hence PBC moderates the relationship between intentions and behaviour, but can also have a direct influence on behaviour (Ajzen and Madden, 1986). The rationale behind the addition of PBC as an independent factor was that it extended beyond the scope of the TRA due to its ability to predict behaviours that are not under volitional control (Ajzen and Madden, 1986). Since the PBC helped to provide information about the constraints that an individual would face while trying to perform a specific act or behaviour, it could be used to explain why intentions do not always accurately predict behaviour. Ajzen (1991) argued that the relationship between PBC and intentions depends predominantly on the type of behaviour and the prevailing situation. Additionally, it has been shown that individuals are more likely to perform certain acts or behaviours if they perceive those tasks to be achievable (Bandura, 1997).

Hence when a specific behaviour is under complete volitional control, the PBC factor does not play an important part in the intention-behaviour relationship. However, for behaviours not completely under our volitional control, PBC is the main factor that moderates the relationship between intention and behaviour (Baron and Kenny, 1986). This implies that higher PBC leads to a stronger relationship between intention and behaviour. To summarise the influence of PBC, it can be rationalised that when the feeling of control in an individual is increased, it in turn increases the amount of additional effort that individual is willing to exert in order to successfully perform that particular behaviour (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993; Sheeran, 2002).

In addition to the PBC, the TPB includes two more antecedents of intentions which follow on from the theory of reasoned action: these are the 'subjective norms' and the 'personal attitude' factors.

2.5.2 Subjective Norms

This factor highlights the importance of social rules, customs and the accompanying social pressures on an individual's perception towards a specific act or behaviour (Aloulou and Aloulou, 2016). It suggests that individuals are influenced by the perceptions of other significant individuals in his/her surroundings. Hence, we are more (or less) likely to perform a specific behaviour based on whether the important people in our lives approve (or disapprove) of the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). In several of the studies so far, the relationship between subjective norms and intentions is considered weaker than the relationship between intentions and the other two antecedents of the TPB (Godin and Kok, 1996; Armitage and Conner, 2001; Autio et al, 2001).

Even though the relationship is weak, several authors have argued for its inclusion and importance in influencing intentions and in turn predicting behaviour (Armitage and Connor, 2001; Latimer and Giniis, 2005). One of the reasons why the subjective norms construct has poor predictability for behaviour is because studies use only single items on their questionnaire to measure this construct (Nunnally, 1978; Armitage and Conner, 2001). However, it has been shown that if multiple-item scales are used, the predictability power of subjective norms is considerably increased. Secondly, it has been suggested to look at individual differences while analysing the effect of the subjective norms factor. Some studies have shown that the strength of the subjective norms – intentions relationship varies within individuals, with some showing a stronger relationship than others (Latimer and Giniis, 2005). The TPB also identifies some determinants or antecedents of the constructs that affect intentions. The determinant for the subjective norms factor is said to be salient *normative beliefs*. These represent the beliefs an individual has about the perceived wishes of the significant members of his family, friends and social circle (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen, 2001). These are usually weighted along with the extent of motivation the individual has to comply with and satisfy those expectations. Hence, it is a combination

of these normative beliefs that leads to the development of the subjective norms construct within the TPB as well as the TRA (Parker, Manstead and Stradling, 1995).

2.5.3 Personal Attitude

The third factor, which was also a part of the original theory of reasoned action, personal attitude, refers to an individual's positive or negative viewpoint towards performing a specific behaviour (Ajzen, 2001). If an individual has a positive outlook towards a behaviour, then his intentions towards performing that behaviour will be stronger. The aim of this construct is to tap into an individual's desirability or perception of desirability towards performing a behaviour. The strength of this construct depends upon the beliefs that one has about the impacts of the outcome of the behaviour (Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000; Shapero and Sokol, 1982). The determinant to this construct has been described as salient *behavioural beliefs* (Armitage and Conner, 2001). These behavioural beliefs are based on an evaluation of each of the consequences of performing or not performing the behaviour. This weighted assessment of the outcome is the driving force behind development of a positive or negative attitude toward a specific behaviour (Parker, Manstead and Stradling, 1995).

Ajzen (1991) pointed out that the perceived behavioural control can also depend on the personal attitude and subjective norms constructs. He explained that if the attitude and the subjective norms reflect a positive light on the behaviour, the perceived control over the behaviour will be stronger and hence the intention to perform the behaviour will also be stronger.

It has been shown that all the three factors within the TBP exert an effect on entrepreneurial intentions, although the relative importance of the three factors can vary depending on the situation and the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Recent studies have now suggested that the factor with the strongest influence on intentions may be the perceived

behavioural control and the smallest effect has been attributed to the subjective norms factor (Autio et al, 2001). In fact, the weak role played by the subjective norms (SN) factor within the TPB has been cited as a cause of concern, however why this factor has been given a weaker role is not clear (Linán and Chen, 2009).

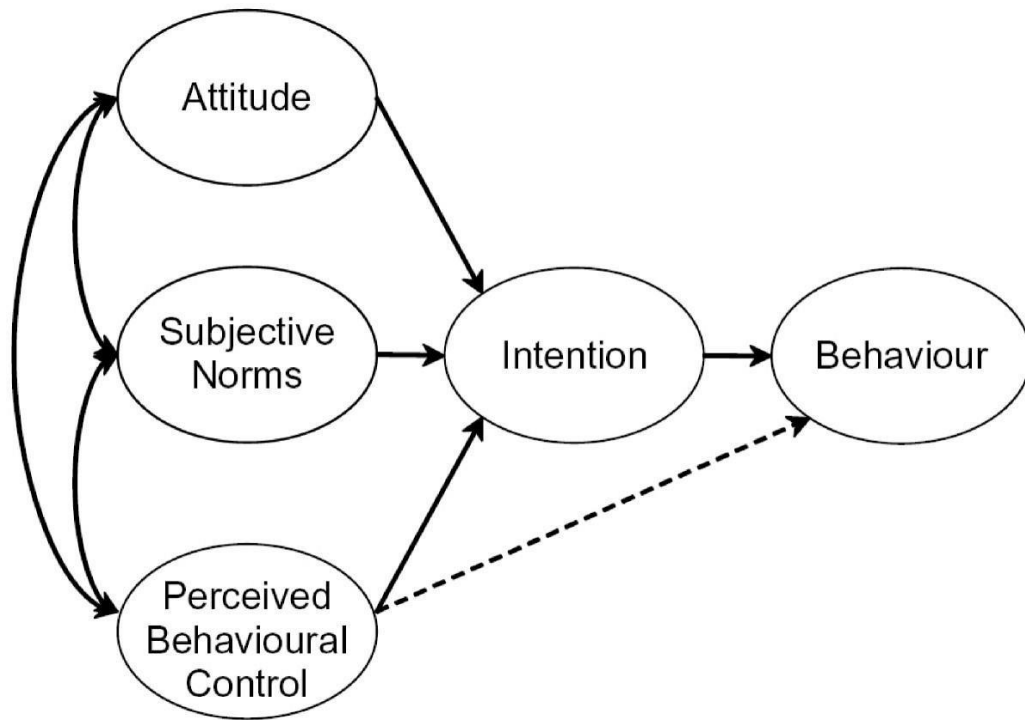


Figure 2.2: Theory of Planned Behaviour (adapted from Ajzen, 2005)

2.6 EVALUATING THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR

Ever since it was first introduced around 30 years ago, the theory of planned behaviour has become one of the most frequently cited, credible and influential models for predicting human behaviour. The increasing popularity of this model can be judged by an analysis of the searches on Google Scholar revealing that as compared to the 22 citations that appeared when theory of planned behaviour was searched for in 1985; in 2010 a Google Scholar search produces 4550 outputs (Ajzen, 2011). In 2016, a Google Scholar search for theory of planned behaviour produces 69,000 outputs. Despite its popularity,

the TPB has been targeted by several critics as well. However, most of these critics have not questioned the basic assumptions of the theory but only the sufficiency and limited predictability of the model (Fishbein and Ajzen, 2010). Reviews on the theory have shown that most of the variability that is associated with behaviour cannot be explained by the TPB variables. In addition to this the gap between intentions and behaviour as also not been addressed by the TPB (Orbell and Sheeran, 1998).

There still is sufficient empirical evidence highlighting the relationship between intention and behaviour as shown in the TPB. Armitage and Conner (2001) conducted a meta-analysis on 185 studies that have used TPB to analyse behaviour and intentions. The average correlation found in their study was 0.47. In another, slightly older meta-analysis by Hausenblas, Carron and Mack (1997) where the application of TRA and TPB was measured, a correlation of 0.47 between intention and behaviour was found. To ascertain the overall effect of this relationship, across the several studies that have been conducted, Sheeran (2002) conducted a meta-analysis of 10 different meta-analyses. The study showed that on average intentions accounted for 28% variance in behaviour, upholding the basic principles of the theory. However, when the TPB was used in longitudinal studies rather than the usual cross-sectional analysis and also when a sample other than that of students was used, its predictability was lower than expected (Sniehotta et al, 2014).

Several of the initial studies that were conducted to test the TPB, were purely testing its predictive validity in different behavioural situations. The combined results and outcomes of these studies have been highlighted by the various meta-analyses mentioned above and clearly support the theory. Once the validity of the theory in predicting intentions and behaviour was established, researchers started focusing on more sophisticated questions surrounding the theory – these included its sufficiency and limited predictability. Although, studies using the model in new behaviours and novel behavioural settings are consistently emerging in the literature, adding to its credibility (Ajzen, 2011).

However, the meta-analyses that have been conducted to support the theory are plagued with some of their own drawbacks since most of these studies depend on correlational analysis to make the inferences about causation (Webb and Sheeran, 2006). The first area of problem is that the studies use cross-sectional designs that are prone to consistency bias. This often results in inflation of the estimates of the strength of the relationship (Budd, 1987). Secondly, with cross-sectional studies it is complicated to determine the direction of the relationship. That is, it is difficult to determine whether intention leads to behaviour, or whether it is behaviour that resulted in the development of the intentions (Bem, 1972). The third drawback of correlational studies is that there is the possibility of a 'third variable', which might be the cause of both intentions and behaviour (Mauro, 1990). Hence, scholars believe that the commonly used correlational studies may not be the most appropriate method to determine that intentions are the prime determinants of behaviour.

One of the main criticisms of the TPB was put forward by Webb and Sheeran (2006), amongst others, suggest that in order to test the relationship between intentions and behaviour, it is essential to modulate the intentions and look for a subsequent change in behaviour. Several studies have tried to experimentally modulate intentions and look for consequent change in behaviour (Brubaker and Fowler, 1990; Fiore et al, 1996). The advantage of such studies over correlational studies, such as Ajzen's TPB, is that the impact of past behaviour can be ruled out since the intentions changed due to experimental manipulation. Also, since such studies are conducted under experimental conditions, the participants are randomly assigned to the specific conditions and hence help to rule out the effect of exogenous variables. In fact even though experimental studies using TPB are rare, the few that have been conducted have not been successful in upholding the assumptions of the theory. Hardeman et al (2002) analysed 24 independent studies that had used TPB in an experimental manner and concluded that the results from the studies

did not provide any significant evidence to suggest the robustness and usefulness of the theory. Similar conclusions were reached by others such as Chatzisarantis and Hagger (2005) and Sniehotta (2009). An interesting point that was raised by Ogden (2003) was that in most of the studies that are unable to meet the assumptions of the theory, the authors more often than not resort to questioning the operationalisation of their own study rather than questioning the basis of the theory.

Another shortcoming of the TPB that was highlighted by Bagozzi (2000) and Bagozzi and Lee (2002) was that intention-behaviour models such as the TPB look at behaviour and action predominantly from a psychological perspective. And the only construct that incorporates social processes in this model is the subjective norms factor. Psychologists usually look at intentions from a personal or individual point of view. This usually encompasses only the conscious plan made by individuals to carry out certain behaviour by oneself (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993). Bagozzi (2000) points out that social factors, which are found in group situations, are also important factors to be incorporated while trying to understand the factors that can affect the intentions of individuals. ‘Social intentions’ include the intentions to perform a behaviour as a part of a group and also the intention to take part in a group act. Social intentions and behaviours can be explained by factors such as ‘*compliance*’, which includes interpersonal pressure, ‘*internalisation*’ or the need to get incorporated into social groups and accepting social norms and finally ‘*social identity*’ which incorporates affective commitment to a group and a collective self-esteem (Bagozzi and Lee, 2002; Kelman, 1974). Perugini and Bagozzi (2004) believe that the scope of the models such as the TPB can be further expanded if factors that highlight the role of social processes, such compliance, internalisation and social identity are included as additional antecedents to intentions. In addition to the social processes, effect of unconscious factors on behaviour has also been ignored in the TPB, where the stress has been mostly on rational reasoning (Sheeran, Gollwitzer and Bargh, 2013). As

discussed in the following section on the scope for improving the TPB, Conner et al (2013) highlighted the lack of attention given to emotions is also a concerning aspect of the TPB.

This was one of the key areas where the results from this study will attempt to make suggestions for improvement in the TPB. Based on the suggestion of Sheeran, Gollwitzer and Bargh (2013), this study looks at social processes through the various family variables. Unconscious and even conscious factors such as support, encouragement, portrayal of a specific image amongst others could help in explaining the development of intentions, and increasing the predictability of the model. This study aims to overcome some of these criticisms by addressing some of the suggestions that have been made by the inclusion of automatic processes, affective processes and social identity, as discussed in the following section.

One of the assumptions of the theory is that Attitude, Subjective Norms and Perceived Behavioural Control mediate the effect of Behavioural, Normative and Control beliefs respectively on intentions and behaviour (Ajzen, 1985). This assumption however has received criticism as well since other studies have been able to show that beliefs can predict behaviour of individuals, over and above intentions (Araujo-Soares et al, 2013; Conner et al, 2013).

Additionally, what is also interesting and important to note is that, while a lot of research has been done to further expand and explore the role of these three factors in developing the intention to be entrepreneur, not enough has been done to investigate the sources of these antecedents (Sanchez, 2012; Fini et al, 2009). The precursors to the beliefs and attitudes that shape intention, that are often superficial, lie in much deeper structures that this study is hoping to uncover.

Fini et al (2009) tried to explore this gap in the literature by expanding on the TBP and attempted to investigate the antecedents of personal attitude and perceived behavioural control. They suggested that the personal attitude, which is an established antecedent of

entrepreneurial intentions, is developed by the skills and psychological characteristics of individuals. Psychological characteristics such as emotional and motivational forces have been shown to be significantly linked to affecting the entrepreneurial attitude of individuals (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993). Additionally, self-efficacy and the risk-taking propensity also form a significant part of psychological characteristics that influence the attitude formation process (McDonald and Siegal, 1992; Luthje and Franke, 2003). Skills such as technical, managerial and procedural proficiency, along with previous experience are linked to development of a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship, which is known to then directly impact intentions (Baum, Locke and Smith, 2001; Souitaris, Zerbinati and Al-Laham, 2007).

In terms of the antecedents for perceived behavioural control, it has been advocated that environmental influence and support are two domains that can influence individual's belief towards entrepreneurship. Government funding schemes, tax policies, physical infrastructure and support services within universities, are factors that help individuals feel more confident about their own potential to succeed and hence positively influence entrepreneurial behaviour (Beck et al, 2005; Foo, Wong and Ong, 2005; Fini et al, 2009; Niosi and Bas, 2001).

The most controversial antecedent of entrepreneurial intentions has been the subjective norms factor (Armitage and Conner, 2001). This factor has been derived from the social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), which claims that individuals tend to get influenced by and adopt behaviours that they have observed within their close family, and with friends and mentors. This is even more evident when the outcome of the behaviour is highly valued (Engle et al, 2011). Ajzen (1991) reports that the approval or disapproval of any behaviour by those important to the individual will influence their intention to perform the behaviour. Hence family, friends and role models are considered the main

antecedents influencing the subject norms factor within the TPB (Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000).

However, despite this being a part of the theory, several studies choose to ignore the subjective norms factor while studying intentions using the TPB (Tarkiainen and Sundqvist, 2005). Magnusson et al (2001) chose not to include Subjective norms in their model while using TPB to look at intentions to buy organic food. Another study by Sparks and Shepherd (1992) also showed very weak effects of subjective norms on intentions. Studies from varied subject areas that have made use of the TPB to look at exercise intentions (Rhodes and Courneya, 2003), use of information technology (Chau and Hu, 2001) and predicting unethical behaviour (Chang, 1998) amongst others have either completely ignored subjective norms while testing the TPB model or have shown a weak role played by subjective norms in comparison to all other TPB variables. Furthermore, only a few studies have been able to show a significant connection between intentions and subjective norms (Kolvereid, 1996b; Kolvereid and Isakan, 2006; Tkachev and Kolvereid, 1999 Liston-Heyes and Vazquez-Brust, 2016; Previte, Russell-Bennett and Parkinson, 2015). However, what is interesting to note is that those scholars that did chose to include the subjective norms variable and look at its impact on entrepreneurial intentions have found very encouraging results. These studies have strongly indicated that during uncertain situations, the greatest impact on individual's intentions, is seen by the social influence and subjective norms (Cialdini and Trost, 1998; Carr and Sequeira, 2007; Souitaris, Zerbinati and Al-Laham, 2007).

Hence so far, taking into consideration most of the available literature as described above, it is evident that there are some gaps in the theory of planned behaviour that warrant further research. The following section will use some of the points highlighted above to discuss the scope for improving the theory of planned behaviour.

2.7 THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR – SCOPE FOR IMPROVEMENT?

As discussed in the previous section Sheeran (2002) conducted a meta-analysis of all 10 meta-analyses and demonstrated that on average, 72% of the variation in behaviour was still unexplained (Hausenblas et al, 1997; Milne, Sheeran and Orbell, 2000; Randall and Wolff, 1994; Sheeran and Orbell, 1998; Sheeran and Sutton, 1999; Sheppard, Hartwick and Warshaw, 1988; Trafimow et al., 2002 and Van den Putte and Hoogstraten, 1997). In addition to the concerns surrounding the validity of the model, other criticisms have focussed on the exclusion of the influence of unconscious factors on behaviour (Sheeran, Gollwitzer and Bargh, 2013), role of emotions (Conner et al, 2013) and the direct effect of beliefs on behaviour (Araujo-Soares et al, 2013) amongst others. Therefore, while the explanations given by the TPB provide a robust analysis regarding the entrepreneurial decision-making process, there is still scope for improvement from both a predictive and an explanatory point of view (Sniehotta, Pesseau and Araújo-Soares, 2014). Some of the improvements that have been suggested have been discussed in this section.

2.7.1 Inclusion of Automatic Processes

Advancements in research since the development of the TPB have highlighted that often human attitudes can be automatically activated and can directly lead to behaviour (Chen and Bargh, 1999; Dovidio et al, 1997). The literature is rife with evidence emphasising the importance of automatic processes in the decision-making process, even when the process is complex (Bargh et al, 2001). Bagozzi (1981), Bentler and Speckart (1979, 1981) amongst others, have shown that past behaviour and habit can account for this automatic variation in behaviour, in addition to that shown by intentions. This has been contested by Ajzen (1991) who believes that perceived behavioural control construct of the TPB cancels out the need for including past behaviour as a predictive factor. However, studies following this provided sufficient contradictory empirical evidence in

support of past behaviour and habit (Bagozzi and Kimmel, 1995; Beck and Ajzen, 1991; Leone, Perugini and Ercolani, 1999).

Therefore, it is important to understand the effects of past behaviour and what they represent. A meta-analysis done by Ouellette and Wood (1998) found a strong evidence of the number of times a past behaviour has been practiced and its effect and impact on both intentions and behaviour. They proposed two possible methods through which past behaviour can influence future behaviour. Firstly, when a behaviour is adopted and performed consistently without any change in scenarios, the frequency of past behaviour describes the habit's strength and therefore will have a direct effect on future behaviour. Secondly, when a behaviour is new and performed inconsistently, the frequency of this type of past behaviour might have an influence on the intentions, with respect to, ones liking of the behaviour concerned (Ouellette and Wood, 1998).

Another interesting study conducted on the role of past behaviour in developing intentions was done by Bagozzi and Warshaw (1990). They divided past behaviour into two types of effects – *frequency effects* and *recency effects*. They suggested that both these types of past behaviour provide different sets of information regarding intentions. Frequency effects are defined as those past behaviours that have had a long history of performance in the past but have not been performed in the recent past. Alternatively, recency effects are those past behaviours that do not have a long past history of performance but have been taken up only in recent times. Therefore, recency effects suggest that some intentions have been activated and therefore can act as good indicators of future behaviour.

The main explanatory variable behind past experience is 'habit' (Aarts and Dijksterhuis, 2000). It has been suggested that habits get automatically activated when one encounters the specific environmental factors required for that goal to be achieved. However, Ajzen (2001) contradicted this as he believes that inadequate planning,

unrealistic optimism and the instability of intentions are factors that must be considered before using past behaviour or habit as a predictor of future behaviour.

As discussed above, the literature seems to be torn in its views regarding the role played by past behaviour and habit in predicting and explaining future behaviour, however there is clear indication that its impact cannot be disregarded. A comprehensive model for predicting behaviour, hence could include past behaviour as one of its factors. This could be one of the improvements that are needed in the TPB, in order to help improve its scope and predictability.

2.7.2 Affective processes

Eagly and Chaiken (1993, p.1) defined attitude as ‘a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour’. Under the TPB, Ajzen has evaluated the role of attitude from predominantly a cognitive perspective, measured using bi-polar semantic differential items such as good-bad, harmful-beneficial etc. Authors such as Breckler and Wiggins (1989) and Verplanken, Hofstee and Janssen (1998) claim that the TPB has ignored the affective component within the measurement of attitude.

Affective component is defined as the disposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner (Perugini and Bagozzi, 2004). This positive or negative orientation towards an act or object can be developed over a period of time, accompanied by reinforcement. When the individual is exposed to the act or object in the future it can automatically trigger this ‘affective’ component of attitude (Fazio, 1995). As an alternative Bagozzi et al (2000) proposed that ‘anticipated emotions’ should be used to predict intentions rather than, or along with, attitude. While, attitude remains constant over a period of time, anticipated emotions are more dynamic entities. These are influenced by feedback, achievement, failure and change from time to time (Carver and Scheier, 2001).

While attitude evaluates an object or behaviour along the dimensions of favour or disfavour, anticipated emotions on the other hand are self-regulatory and based on the consequences of alternative outcomes and on success or failures. Anticipated emotions can impact intentions by influencing the desirability towards performing a certain behaviour (Perugini and Bagozzi, 2004).

In summary, the TPB is unable to explain the role played by ‘affective processes’ in decision-making, intentions and hence predicting behaviour. Therefore, another improvement to the TPB that has been suggested, is the incorporation of the effect of anticipated emotions, along with attitude, perceived behavioural control and subjective norms, in the development of intentions (Ortony, Clore, and Collins, 1988).

2.7.3 Desires and Motivations

Another aspect of the decision-making and behavioural process that was ignored in Ajzen’s TPB, was the role of motivational processes. While attitude, perceived behavioural control and subjective norms can provide the reasons or intentions to act, it is the ‘motivational’ factors that eventually ‘activate’ or ‘energise’ these intentions, leading to behaviour (Bagozzi, 1992; Fazio, 1995). Bagozzi (1992) went on to suggest that motivations, intentions and attitude all work through ‘desires’. He proposed that the three predictors under the TPB are linked to intentions by the means of ‘desires’ which lead to the activation of motivational processes and eventually the intention and reasons to act (Perugini and Bagozzi, 2004).

The effect of desires is often contested in the literature. Desires can be fleeting and often conflicting, intentions on the other hand are considered a more concrete step in the decision-making process since they often imply a commitment towards performing a behaviour (Fry et al, 2014; Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001).

However, solely a desire to perform an act or behaviour does not imply that the behaviour will occur. But in fact the role of desires lies in the development and activation of intentions to perform the behaviour, which are represented by the motivational processes. The inclusion of desires and motivations as independent factors leading to intentions, can help to increase the predictability of the TPB model.

Therefore, the above discussion highlights some of the factors that can be used to improve the outcomes of the theory of planned behaviour. It is yet to be determined, whether these factors would stand as independent factors/variables that have a direct impact on intentions, or whether these could have an indirect impact on intentions via their ability to effect some of the known antecedents of intentions. Also, how these factors relate to entrepreneurial behaviour and intentions is yet to be described.

Having discussed the various factors relating to the 'individual', their immediate surroundings that have been shown to have an impact on the entrepreneurial intentions and the improvements that can be made to the various prediction models for intentions, it is now imperative to put this in context of a larger picture. The entrepreneurial nature and actions of human beings has not really changed over time. It is only the rules and policies prevalent at different times that define the final outcome of entrepreneurship (Baumol, 1990). The economic and general environment surrounding entrepreneurs is extremely crucial in fostering entrepreneurial activity by promoting the development of entrepreneurial intentions. Such an environment is augmented by productive government policies (Minniti, 2008). To establish and encourage a conducive environment in which entrepreneurship can thrive, government bodies often provide hard support, that is financial and physical assistance such as commercial infrastructure and also, soft support is provided by the government in the form of educational programs, training policies, R&D transfer, tax rebates and internal market openness with the hope that it will inspire and encourage individuals to take up entrepreneurship.

However, the attempts made by policy makers towards promoting entrepreneurship depend, to a significant level, on the prevailing societal attitudes and values (Thomas and Mueller, 2000). The societal and cultural factors that can influence the entrepreneurial intentions of an individual, supplement the structural factors implemented to promote entrepreneurship and can also influence the entrepreneurial characteristics of individuals. Hence, such societal and cultural factors that can help to generate an environment ideal for entrepreneurship and growth warrant further attention (Lipset, 2000). The following section will discuss how family can help in the development of the right entrepreneurial intentions.

2.8 FAMILY IN ENTREPRENEURIAL LITERATURE

It is believed that the process of learning is continuous, but begins early in life usually within family homes and then continues throughout the life in schools and workplaces (Morrison, 2000). Entrepreneurial traits - innovativeness, risk-taking ability, pro-activeness, need for achievement and autonomy- are initiated and reinforced very early in life of an individual. It is the “family” that has been suggested to have a significant impact on either promoting or retarding the development of these traits and hence encouraging or discouraging an individual towards an entrepreneurial life (Gibb, 1996).

“Family” refers to a group of close relations that one is born into, and where one spends the seminal years of life. Ding (2008, p.180) defined family as “a group of highly interdependent individuals who are connected by birth, marriage or adoption”. Family can be characterised by the long-term nature of inter- and intra-generational ties along with the emotional dimensions of the relationships (Puryear et al, 2008). The upbringing of an individual by their family instils in them the values and way of life that is acceptable and practiced in society (Ding, 2008; Puryear et al, 2008).

For the purpose of this study, the researcher is limiting the scope of family to include individuals that are connected by birth. The family unit that will be under investigation in this study is going to include members that are living under the same roof, and interact with each other on a regular basis. This is an important aspect of the family life as it is through these regular interactions are where the process of socialization is expected to begin and the values, beliefs and norms that are considered to be central to each individual family are passed on to the various members (Haralambos and Heald, 1980, Puryear et al, 2008). Thus in this study the various individuals that will be considered in the family unit will vary depending on the composition of each family. Usually this will include parents and siblings but in India the joint family often also includes grandparents and other extended family (Patel, 2005).

It is well accepted that entrepreneurship is an intentional, and planned behaviour. However, it is just as critical to accept that the intention to start an entrepreneurial venture does not begin in 'vacuum' (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003). According to the family embeddedness perspective, the norms, attitudes and values within a family are instrumental in the decision to start a business venture and are crucial antecedents to entrepreneurial behaviour (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003; Kirkwood, 2012).

Linñan and Chen (2009) suggest that the subjective norms factor of the TPB, may in fact, have an underlying influence on both the other factors, namely personal attitude and the perceived behavioural control. Scholars have indicated that certain 'reference people', that is those who are important to the individual, help in developing a positive personal attitude and greater perceived behavioural control (Scherer et al, 1991; Cooper, 1993; Matthews and Moser, 1995). This effect of subjective norms on PA and PBC were described by Linñan and Santos (2007). The ideas proposed by Linñan and Chen (2009) and Linñan and Santos (2007) indicate that subjective norms, through these important reference individuals, which include family, friends and role models, have an influence on the

antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions, even though as discussed earlier empirical studies on the role of subjective norms have been rather inconclusive and weak in comparisons to the other two antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions. The researcher proposes to take this idea a step forward and suggests that the family, which is one of the main influencing factor within the subjective norms, is the main source for all the antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions. By separating family from the construct of subjective norms and studying it as an independent factor influencing intentions, as well as its antecedents, the researcher feels that the discrepancy surrounding the role played by subjective norms will be solved, and their importance can be proven in an empirical manner. Hence, this study aims to highlight the crucial part played by the family in development of entrepreneurial intentions and subsequently of entrepreneurial behaviour.

The GEM report has recognised that cultural and social support is an important factor in promoting entrepreneurship within any society. It is suggested that a positive culture which accepts and respects new businesses and is not averse to risks and failures tends to increase the propensity of entrepreneurship (GEM, 2003). The economic and general environment surrounding entrepreneurs is extremely crucial in fostering entrepreneurial activity. Such an environment can be augmented by productive government policies such as those providing financial and physical support (Minniti, 2008). However, attempts made by policy makers towards promoting entrepreneurship depend, to a significant level, on the prevailing societal attitudes and intentions (Thomas and Mueller, 2000). The idea for any new venture is initiated with inspiration along with the appropriate opportunity. However, the right intention is required in order to ensure that the idea manifests itself properly (Bird, 1988).

Literature suggests that an individual's family is responsible for developing the awareness about entrepreneurship in the youth (Bagheri and Pihie, 2010). The right attitude, capabilities and creativity to start a new business venture are gained by young

individuals from the time that they spend with their families (Kundu and Rani, 2008; White et al, 2007; Gupta et al, 2009). The inspiration and supportive environment within the family can augment the entrepreneurial intentions in the youth (Zampetakis, 2007; Chen et al, 1998; Bagheri and Pihie, 2010).

It is suggested that families function as a systematic unit wherein interactions and relationships significantly affect the behaviour of the individuals that make up the unit (Carr, 2000). In most cases, family provides “the most potent and significant relational experience” for individuals, that lasts throughout their lives (Whiston and Keller, 2004). The rules and regulations within families are developed in a manner so as to maintain a healthy balance and cordial relationship between all those that make up this unit. It is these fixed patterns and rules of conduct that tend to influence the behaviour of the family members within the unit, especially children and impact their life decisions (Brachther, 1982).

The factors that influence young individuals can be divided into ‘definer influence’ and ‘model influence’ (Middleton and Loughhead, 1993). Definer influence comes from people who have direct contact with the children. These individuals are viewed as providers of information. The model influence comes from individuals that the children observe on a day to day basis but do not have direct contact with. These individuals do not have a very significant impact on the children. Since parents and family members are believed to have maximum contact and discussions with their offspring, they are believed to have maximum definer influence on their children, which extends from early life decisions such as which schools and universities to attend, right through to their adult life decisions, such as marriage and career (Saltiel, 1985; Sebald, 1989). Available literature on career decisions of youth is rife with studies showing the importance of family, especially that of parents, who as a result of their unique position in their children’s life, can significantly impact their aspirations and decisions (McNair and Brown, 1983; Palmer

and Cochran, 1988; Ginevra, Nota and Ferrari, 2015). Parents have been cited as the main factor influencing the career decision of their children by several researchers (Leifer and Lesser, 1976; Miller, 1985). Pallone et al (1973) conducted a study in which they asked students to indicate the inspiration behind their career choices. The study showed that majority of the respondents considered their parents to be the main reason behind their career choice. Several such studies have been conducted over large age groups of students, and it has been seen that the influence of parents on the careers of their children remains significantly consistent across these varying age groups, from adolescents to college juniors to Masters level students (Werts, 1968; Basow and Howe, 1979).

The influence of parents on career aspirations of their children is further affected by additional factors such as family background and socio-economic status of the family (Middleton and Loughhead, 1993). There is significant evidence in the literature to conclude that family background and structure affects the employment decisions and outcomes (Butcher and Case, 1994; Hundley, 2006; Aldrich et al, 1998; Stier and Grusky, 1990; Hout and Rosen, 2000).

Hundley in his 2006 review suggests that family can pass on two types of “inheritance” or “capital” to their children, namely economic and vocational inheritance. Both of these factors seem to have a considerable impact on the career decision of the children and more specifically on their decision to become self-employed or not.

Economic Inheritance includes the financial assets and physical capital owned by the family such as personal wealth of the parents, which can be passed on to generations that follow (Hundley, 2006). Research shows that children coming from wealthy families are more likely to be self-employed than others, and the financial assets of one’s parents have been positively linked to the probability of children becoming entrepreneurs (Dunn and Holtz-Eakin, 2000; Halaby, 2003). This could be either because wealthy parents can finance their children’s business ventures hence overcoming the main problem of initial

capital faced by most new business owners or because children from wealthy backgrounds use their parent's money as an "insurance" and "back-up" and hence tend to choose riskier ventures. This financial safety net puts these individuals at a better position than others, who claim lack of capital to be their main barrier to self-employment (Western and Wright, 1994). Also, their upbringing and exposure to a particular kind of life style instils the belief that higher risk leads to higher incomes, hence they often opt for entrepreneurial jobs rather than bureaucratic jobs (Halaby, 2003).

The second kind of inheritance passed on to the children from their families, and the more important one as pointed out by Aldrich et al (1998) is **vocational capital**, or what can be termed as "entrepreneurial capital" in the case of self-employed parents. Both of these terms encompass the attitudes, skills, values and attributes that these children are exposed to during their formative years within the family. These have been seen to promote them into entering their parent's occupational fields (Hundley, 2006; Davidsson and Honig, 2003; Stier and Grusky, 1990).

Vocational skills and attitudes can be developed by children when they work alongside their parents either part-time or as full-time work experiences. This hands-on learning helps them become competent in their parent's occupation and pick up the required skills by watching and learning from their parents at work, thus further pushing them towards following their parent's occupational footsteps (Aldrich et al, 1998). Apart from the physical skills and know-how, traits such as risk-taking propensity, creativity, high need for achievement and an autonomous nature are often passed down from entrepreneurial parents to their offspring. On the other hand, children working alongside their parents in the service sector pick up values and traits such as managerial skills, ability to work under fixed rules and learn to understand and accept the hierarchal system that exists in those organisations (Carroll and Mosakowaski, 1987).

The social capital and networks amassed by parents during their career is probably one of the biggest assets that a parent can pass on to their offspring who choose to follow their career path. Children from business families can use their parents' social networks to start their own businesses or even expand their parents existing businesses, and this gives them a clear advantage over those coming from non-business families (Granovetter, 1993). Social capital and networks form an important part of other traditional occupations such as Medicine and Law as well (Hundley, 2006).

Scholars have studied the connection between families with entrepreneurial backgrounds and their influence on the youth of the family (Kickul et al, 2008; Wilson et al, 2007). There is significant amount of empirical evidence suggesting that children with entrepreneurial parents have higher entrepreneurial self-efficacy, leading to a greater intention towards entrepreneurship (Bagheri and Pihie, 2010; Zhao et al, 2005; Tan and Fock, 2001). Parents have been known to act as role models for potential entrepreneurs and also help in motivating the youth by providing the appropriate social capital and experience. Additionally, involvement with a family business has been shown to have a positive impact on the perceived feasibility and desirability towards entrepreneurship. Growing up in business families exposes the youth to the experiences and realities of an entrepreneurial career, hence can have a more realistic impact on their intentions and attitudes towards entrepreneurship (Hamidi et al, 2008; Carr and Sequeira, 2007).

However, apart from the study of family businesses, entrepreneurship literature has given little attention to the effect of family on intentions and capabilities (Bagheri and Pihie, 2010). In fact, the literature has looked at family through a very selective lens and despite the enormous amount of literature available, it has been unsuccessful in convincingly showing a role of family in developing entrepreneurial intentions (Bagheri and Pihie 2010; Walker, Jeger and Kopecki 2013). The researcher feels that this is primarily because the literature considers family as one of the demographic factors

affecting intentions. Instead of studying family as an independent factor capable of having direct impact on EI as well as its antecedents, it is usually grouped along with other environmental and contextual factors such as socio-economic background, education and gender to name a few. Hence, the various aspects and intricacies of a complex institution, such as the family, get diluted. As a result of this evident ignorance of family from mainstream entrepreneurship literature, the theories that have been developed to analyse the factors affecting intentions have not been successful. It has been suggested that by including family as an independent factor, the existing theories can be made more valuable and robust. This can be done by including the family dimension while sampling, modelling and conceptualising the theories, and the researcher plans to work towards achieving this.

Family is often considered the breeding ground where the predispositions for entrepreneurial career are laid (Rogoff and Heck, 2003). While the various rules, relationships and codes of conduct within a family can vary from one society to another and even between one family and another (Chung and Gale, 2009), what usually remains consistent is the way in which family can influence the process of entrepreneurship. Based on the literature we can identify three main aspects of how family can influence entrepreneurship: socialisation and values, support and encouragement, experience, experimentation and development (Fayolle, 2014).

2.8.1 The effect of Socialisation and Values

Family is the first place where the process of socialisation begins and where social norms of what is considered acceptable or unacceptable are laid down (Fayolle, 2014). In fact, not just during childhood, but during the entire life of an individual, family can affect the development of personality traits and also influence an individual's social behaviour (Carr and Sequeira, 2007; Aldrich and Cliff, 2003). Within the family subunit, values,

views and traditions are often passed on from one member to another and from one generation to another (Saporta, 2002).

Therefore, a positive attitude to entrepreneurship will develop within the realms of a family unit where some members have previously been successfully involved in entrepreneurial ventures. Alternatively, an entrepreneurial attitude may be inhibited in families which have had either no experience or a negative experience with entrepreneurial ventures (Fayolle, 2014). Smith (2009, p.2) suggested that family can act as an “incubator of entrepreneurial spirit”. A study by Fairlie and Robb (2007) demonstrated that children from families where either one or both parents were entrepreneurs were more inclined towards following entrepreneurial careers as compared to children that came from families with failed and negative experiences with entrepreneurship.

The role of family socialization hence opens up the possibility of family influencing the Personal Attitude factor as suggested by Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behaviour. In fact, it is not just the ‘likeability’ of a behaviour, as measured by Personal Attitude, but also the perceived feasibility, as measured by the PBC, that an individual fosters, that could be influenced by the socialization and values that have been passed down within the family and hence impact the manner in which individuals view entrepreneurship and develop intentions. Previously Boyd and Vozikis (1994) and Dunn and Holtz-Eakin (2000) highlighted the potential role of family socialization in influencing the entrepreneurial self-efficacy of individuals. Whether it is via the discussion of positive or negative anecdotes with the family members or past achievements and failures, the impact of these on the attitude and perceived behavioural control of young individuals is a relationship that requires further attention.

2.8.2 Importance of family support and encouragement

The high level of interdependence between family members suggests that family is a strong source of constant mutual support and encouragement for individuals. Apart from the psychological support that is provided by family, the literature recognises family as one of the main providers of financial and physical resources, expertise, advice and labour (Dyer, 2006; Chrisman, Chua and Steier, 2003; Aldrich and Cliff, 2003). Studies have shown that entrepreneurs often offer their family's contacts and social capital to acquire funding from external sources (Steier and Greenwood, 2000). Also, nascent entrepreneurs often depend on their families for the initial start-up capital and labour (Chua et al, 2009; Au and Kwan, 2009). Steier (2009, p. 530) said that “Entrepreneurship is rarely a solo endeavour” and families serve as a strong support mechanism for helping new firms survive longer (Dibrell et al, 2009). The support network of the family is not only limited to parents but extends to grandparents, uncles, aunts and even in-laws (Kirkwood, 2009).

This physical and psychological support is one of the main factors that can influence how an individual perceives entrepreneurial opportunities – in the presence of support from the family, the chances of success might seem higher and hence individuals would have not only a positive attitude, but also a stronger sense of control and feasibility about the entrepreneurial behaviour. Considering the connection between attitude and perceived behavioural control with Intentions as described in the TPB, it is reasonable to assume that family support and encouragement are important elements for predicting entrepreneurial intentions. In addition, young individuals who received physical and psychological support from the family would have a positive perception of the subjective norms, further adding to the development of intentions in favour of entrepreneurship. The conceptualization of the subjective norm construct by Ajzen (1988) was meant to include the perceptions of significant others such as family, friends and colleagues about the behaviour. Hence, if the family were to provide support, experience or in general provide

a positive environment for entrepreneurship, the individual would perceive their views on entrepreneurship to be positive, thereby positively impacting their entrepreneurial intentions. Furthermore, studies by Boer and Westhoff (2006), Lapinski and Rimal (2005) and Ravis and Sheeran (2003) suggest Subjective Norms to refer to the social approval of the behaviour. Hence, if through their support, encouragement, discussion of positive anecdotes and overall positive image towards entrepreneurship an individual's family expresses their approval towards the behaviour, it would be expected to have a positive impact on their subjective norm and hence intentions. This follows on from some initial work done by Chua et al (2009) where they show support from parents to be able to directly influence the entrepreneurial intentions of young individuals.

Furthermore, it can be argued that addressing the important role played the support and encouragement, as well as socialisation provided within a family, embraces the suggestions that were made by Perugini and Bagozzi (2004) when they highlighted the need to include affective processes and anticipated emotions within the TPB. Affective processes take into consideration the positive reinforcement that individuals receive in terms of feedback, failure and success which trigger positive or negative feelings towards a certain behaviour. An individual's family could play an essential role in reinforcing positive or negative feelings and opinions relating to entrepreneurship. Hence, a framework that includes factors that could assess this underlying support mechanism would be capable of satisfying some of the concerns regarding the lack of anticipated emotions that have been raised against the TPB.

2.8.3 Family as a source of experience, experimentation and development

It is well established that children imitate their parent's actions and learn by experience, often leading them to follow in their parents footsteps. Having individuals within the family that the youth can emulate and look up to as role models, strongly correlates with the career or employment decision taken by them (Fayolle, 2014). The norms, attitudes, and values held by entrepreneurial family members likely influence an individual's repertoire of strategies, processes, and structures needed for venture creation (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003). Therefore, children who grew up in an entrepreneurial household are more likely to have received the right experience and have entrepreneurial role models that increases the chances of them following entrepreneurial careers themselves (Begley et al, 1997; Schmitt-Rodermund, 2004). Prior entrepreneurial experience is a well-established factor while trying to assess entrepreneurial intentions and behaviours, and can have a significant effect either positive or negative on the individual's entrepreneurial intentions (Ajzen, 1991).

Previously, studies by Bagozzi and Kimmel (1995), Leone et al (1999) and Ouellette and Wood (1998) have suggested that past behaviour in the form of previous experience of working in an entrepreneurial set up can impact the intentions and even the behaviour of individuals. It can be hypothesised that the presence of past experience can provide individuals with a greater sense of feasibility and control over the behaviour. In addition to this, the chances of the behaviour being repeated would suggest the presence of a positive attitude towards the behaviour. Hence young individuals that were from an early age exposed to working in an entrepreneurial set up, via the support of their families, would be likely to develop intentions in favour of entrepreneurship.

This is in line with some of the previous improvements that have been suggested for the TPB which call for the inclusion of past behaviour and habit in order to develop a more comprehensive model for predicting intentions (Bargh et al, 2001; Bagozzi and

Warshaw, 1990). The past behaviour of being involved in entrepreneurial activity through exposure to family businesses can be an important influencing factor in the development of future intentions and behaviour. Aldrich and Cliff's (2003) embeddedness perspective also emphasizes the importance of family transitions such as marriage of siblings, death of parent or grandparents, childbirth, elderly parents or changing patterns of employment in the family (e.g. working mothers) as sources of experimentation and development of entrepreneurial attitude. As individuals face new challenges and new roles, they test their capabilities and their attitude towards responsibility, decision-making, and risk-taking. Family transitions can also alter the strength of kinship ties and either reinforce or weaken the importance of family norms and support.

Hence based on the above discussion it is evident that family is considered a well-accepted '*transmission channel*' for knowledge, experience, behaviour and financial resources which is also recognised to be important in the field of entrepreneurship (Aldrich et al. 1998; Dunn and Holtz-Eakin, 2000; Fairlie and Robb, 2007; Hout and Rosen, 2000; Lentz and Laband, 1990). Considering that an individual forms a career decision due to the various skills, values, attitudes, beliefs and self-efficacy acquired by socialisation process at home (Akerlof and Kranton, 2005), it seems plausible to assume that an entrepreneurial inclination is also developed at home (Halaby, 2003; Johnson, 2002). It is this role of family as a '*transmission channel*' that the researcher is trying to analyse in order to establish its importance in the development of entrepreneurial intentions of young individuals to successfully predict their entrepreneurial behaviour.

Hence, all these factors taken together can influence the decision that the children take for their future. It has been shown above that role of family, and parents in particular, is crucial in shaping the values and beliefs that become ingrained in the minds of the young individuals and eventually become a part of their personality. The following report aims to understand the effect of these factors on Indian youth, and will attempt to uncover how

these different familial factors affect the intention shown towards entrepreneurship by the young generation of India.

Based on the review of the literature, the theoretical model that is suggested in this study is as described in Figure 2.3. The figure describes the relationship between the three aspects of family that this study has highlighted and their subsequent effect on the antecedents to intentions.

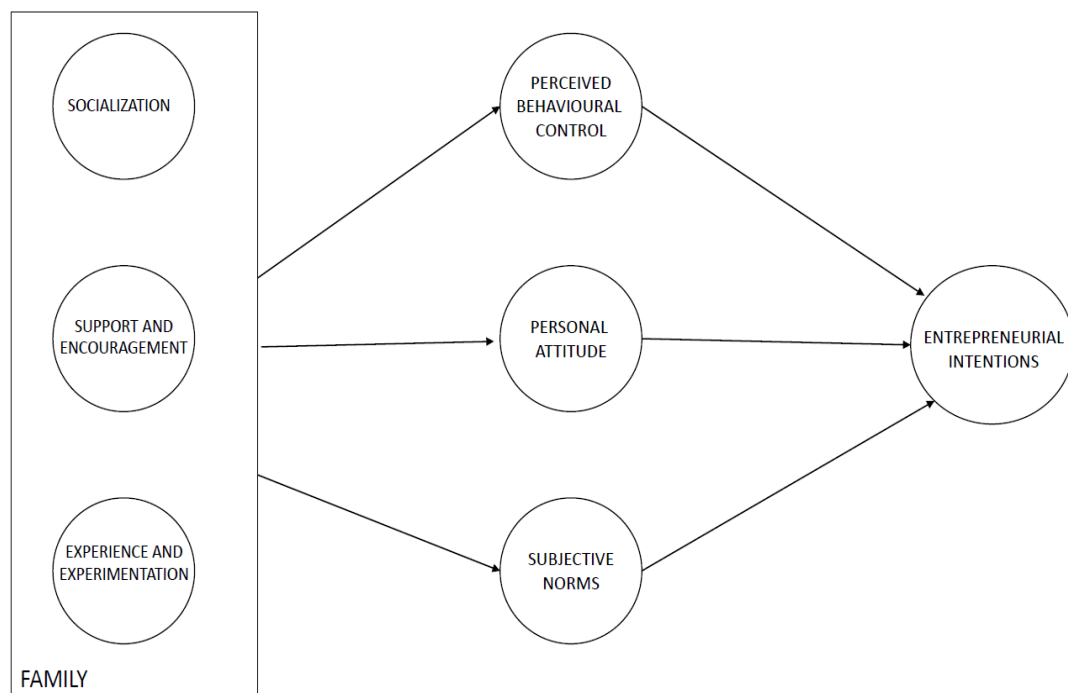


Figure 2.3: Proposed Theoretical Model

However, while discussing the existing literature on entrepreneurship and the factors that influence it, one tends to ignore that many of the leading researchers and scholars who have studied this field were from the USA and other western countries of Europe like UK and Germany (Ulhoi, 2005; Tominc and Rebernik, 2007). They have broadly touched upon the general themes prevalent in any culture. However, it is extremely important to understand the intrinsic factors that are unique to specific countries and their implications on entrepreneurship (Schildt and Sillanpaa, 2004). Keeping this in mind, the

last section of this chapter will give a brief overview on India and will attempt to explain the importance and dynamics of the Indian family structure.

2.9 THE CASE OF INDIA

Being one of the oldest civilisations in the world, India has a rich and varied cultural and social history. The diversity present in the culture of India can be attributed to the rulers from different countries such as Greece, Turkey, Persia and Europe, that reigned over India for centuries and left behind traces of their respective cultures. The most significant impact being that of British imperialism which lasted 300 years (Medora, 2007).

It was believed that growth and economic changes in a country are determined to a large extent by the “values” present in them. While structural factors help make development possible it is only the cultural factors that can convert a possibility into an actuality (Lipset, 2000). Historically, the social structure and cultural values of Indian society have been restricting towards entrepreneurship and economists have constantly linked the limited scope of Indian entrepreneurship to its culture. It was generally believed that the Indian cultural and religious set-up was in opposition to materialistic gains (Shivani, Mukherjee and Sharan, 2006). This was mainly due to the caste system, which restricted people from choosing their own occupations and due to the philosophies of Karma, which resigned individuals to their fate. Also, apart from the cultural settings being un-conducive, the centuries of exploitive imperialism took its toll on the Indian business developments and once again led to unsuitable environment for entrepreneurship (Tripathi, 1992; Dana, 2000; Shivani, Mukherjee and Sharan, 2006).

Religion plays an integral part of the social set-up of India. The basic values, cultures and norms are reiterated by religion in India. The spiritualism, fatalism and asceticism which were pre-dominant in Indian culture put significant obstacles in the path

of material growth of the country. These factors resulted in the Indian people being un-entrepreneurial and not anti-entrepreneurial as believed by some western observers (Singer, 1956). The motivation that is required by the individual to become successful as an entrepreneur and the high need for achievement is against the philosophies of renunciation preached by Indian culture and are found to be lacking in Indian entrepreneurs (McClelland and Winter, 1969). However, this was contradicted by several researchers who believe that even though such values are rife in Indian society, the common middle-class man shows the same level of materialistic needs as people from any other society and culture (Singer, 2007).

Apart from religion, the caste system has plagued Indian society and culture for long, and is believed to be one of the more prominent factors influencing the level of entrepreneurship in India. The caste system is a unique institution that is specific to Indian culture and society. The members of a caste follow the same profession, customs, beliefs and values. Traditionally, Indian families lacked the freedom to choose their profession. This prevented individuals with entrepreneurial intentions and abilities to start their own businesses or ventures in other fields apart from their traditional occupations (Shivani, Mukherjee and Sharan, 2006).

The cultural standards, religion, caste and values are passed on to the following generations via the family which acts as a “transmission belt”. In India, “family” forms the centre and most integral part of Indian culture; and is the foundation of the community and society as a whole. It acts as an institution defining the boundaries between acceptable and unacceptable and provides experiences that shape the values and beliefs of the children (Srivastava, 1995). Family members are programmed in a way that the welfare of family is always treated as more important than individual needs. The Indian family system is based solidly on the principles of hierarchy, duty, obligation and compromise towards the familial unit is very strong (Medora, 2007; Kakar, 1978). It is believed to be the central

aspect of an individual's social life and defines his personality and identity, and it is the duty of each member to uphold the position and respect of the family in society (Sharma and Rao, 2000). Hence, it was values such as obedience, respect for authority, conforming to traditions and set rules and the lack of autonomy, that were inherent within Indian familial set-up which seemed to be constricting towards the entrepreneurial spirit of the youth of India. And it is this relationship between the family values and entrepreneurial intentions that the researcher is interested in uncovering.

Indian family, in the 21st century is bicultural, showing a mix of traditional values and belief systems along with western ideas. It is a unique blend of individualist and collectivist characteristics, which could be a consequence of the long years of British imperialism (Medora, 2007). This has resulted in Indian families showing high materialistic aims, high need for achievement and ambition while maintaining traditional values where older individuals are respected and autonomy in the young is discouraged (Leonard-Spark and Saran, 1980). This changing socio-cultural environment is accompanied by an overall change in the business environment within the country, spearheaded by the central government. Several new initiatives have been set-up to help provide a boost to the Indian economy via entrepreneurship. In 2015, the Government of India started a Skills Initiative under the Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship. This initiative recognises the importance of skilled youth for the success of a nation. In order to achieve this, the initiative offers several courses, free of cost, across 40 different sectors that will help individuals develop practical and technical skills for entrepreneurship (Skill India, 2016). In addition to this, the Ministry of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises aims to focus on the development and growth of the Micro, Small and Medium Enterprise (MSMEs) sector in India. These MSMEs have been a crucial part of the Indian economy over the past several decades and act as complementary industries to several of the large industries in India. The main role of the ministry is to provide

support to the various state governments and assist them in improving entrepreneurship and employment and making the MSMEs more competitive. They do this by providing credit, supporting the modernization of technology, introducing efficient and modern management practices, better access to domestic and foreign markets and overall empowerment of all those involved (MoMSME, 2016). The government is further focussing on technology based entrepreneurship through the Ministry of Electronics and Information Technology. An initiative known as the Technology Incubation and Development of Entrepreneurs is focussing on higher education institutes by providing them funding to strengthen their Technology Incubation Centres. The aim is to get angel investors and venture capitalists to help young entrepreneurs commercially exploit the technologies developed by them and provide them with financial support and mentoring (MeitY, 2016).

Indian MSMEs are divided into two broad categories – these are MSMEs in the Manufacturing sector and MSMEs in the Service sector. The distinction between Micro, Small and Medium enterprises is based on the initial investment in machinery and equipment. The table below shows the current classification system in place in India.

Class/Category	Manufacturing	Service
Micro Enterprises	Investment up to Rs.25 lakhs (approx. £30,000)	Investment up to Rs.10 lakhs (approx. £12,000)
Small Enterprises	Investment above Rs.25 lakh and up to Rs.5 crore (between £30,000 and £600,000)	Investment above Rs.10 lakh and up to Rs.2 crore (between £12,000 and £240,000)
Medium Enterprises	Investment above Rs.5 crore and up to Rs.10 crore (between £600,000 and £1.2million)	Investment above Rs.2 crore and up to Rs. 5 crore (between £240,000 and £600,000)

Table 2.1: Classification of MSME (Adapted from Development Commissioner, MSME, Government of India)

Based on the recent reports, MSMEs contribute 6% to the GDP of India, and make up 33% of the manufacturing and 45% of the exports. Currently, this accounts for 21% of total employment in the country (MoMSME, 2016). While this might sound like a lot, there is still tremendous scope of improvement when these figures are compared to other countries at a global level. In countries like the USA and UK, the SME sector contributes almost 50% to the GDP, and account for more than 50% of all jobs. Another challenge that is currently facing the Indian economy is the large reliance on the informal sector. The informal sector is defined as enterprises or units that function at a low level of organization, low capital and labour and mostly aimed at personal employment and income (ILO, 2017). The labour is mostly casual labour dependent on personal and social relationships. In India, almost 85% of jobs come from the informal sector, 4.5% from the public sector and a miniscule 2.5% from the private sector. The remaining 8% comes from the formal household sector, which are enterprises that employ more than 5 workers. The promotion and growth of the MSME sector will prove to be an important way to provide strength and stability to the large unorganized sector that exists in the country by providing them with the opportunity to gradually move towards the formal sector (NCEUS, 2009). The programs and schemes that have been put in place by the government will provide individuals currently working in the informal sector develop technical and managerial skills, and along with the financial schemes will help them establish registered micro, small and medium enterprises (KPMG, 2015).

2.10 CONCLUSION AND GAP IN THE LITERATURE

The chapter above reviewed the existing literature showing that economic growth requires the presence of a helpful environment, wherein successful entrepreneurs and rapidly growing enterprises are pre-dominant. However, every society is constrained by human institutions that affect performance of their economies. These could range from

political institutions to cultural factors such as codes of conduct and values (North, 1991; Veciana et al 2005). The researcher showed, as described in the GEM (2016) report, that the cultural factors play a significant role in affecting the entrepreneurial attributes and intentions of the people.

Additionally, the family was highlighted to play a crucial role in influencing the entrepreneurial intentions of the youth. Especially from the point of view of India, where it is the family that begins the early socialisation of the youth, and can hence be essential for developing the right intentions. The chapter highlighted the gap in the literature by showing the important role played by family in career decisions of the youth but the evident lack of research and importance that it is provided when discussing entrepreneurial intentions.

Linán and Fayolle (2015) in their systematic literature review of 409 papers published on entrepreneurial intentions showed that over the past decade, 5 papers have been published that attempt to increase the predictability of intentions by including new variables or factors. Hmieleski and Corbett (2006), introduced the variable ‘proclivity for improvisation’, and showed that this variable measuring the penchant for improvisation was strongly related to entrepreneurial intentions and in fact found to have the biggest effect in their study. Hayton and Cholakova (2012) introduce a variable measuring Affect, for improving the prediction of entrepreneurial intentions. This was similar to the ideas that were suggested by Perugini and Bagozzi (2004) and Bagozzi et al (2000) who also highlighted the need to incorporate affective processes in the TPB, via the additional variable ‘Anticipated Emotion’. Lastly, Tumansjan et al (2013) introduced a variable ‘Temporal Distance’, into their TPB model to improve its predictability. In addition to these, there were 9 papers that highlighted the important influence of personal-level variables on intentions. These included risk-perception (Segal et al, 2005), prior exposure to entrepreneurship through family (Carr and Sequiera, 2007), social capital (Linan and

Santos, 2007), career anchors (Lee and Wong, 2004), prior entrepreneurial exposure (Gird and Bagraim, 2008), university education (Guerrero et al, 2008) and gender stereotypes (Gupta et al, 2009; Gupta et al, 2008; Wilson et al, 2007) amongst others.

Furthermore, 35 papers have addressed the importance of background on influencing entrepreneurial intentions. These have included studies on family background, past experiences, parents' occupation (Bhandari, 2012) and family role models (Bosma et al, 2012; Carr and Sequeira, 2007).

As is evident from the discussion above, significant amount of research has been conducted on trying to add new variables to the TPB in order to improve it. Additionally, several of these past studies highlighted above have looked at factors that are linked to the personal and family/background related variables, but none of these by themselves have been able to significantly predict entrepreneurial intentions and behaviour. Despite the continued attention on improving intentions models and assessing entrepreneurial intentions, no studies were found that were specifically aimed at explaining the potentially important role that family could play in influencing the entrepreneurial intentions. Additionally, none of the studies looked at addressing the impact of these factors in a country like India, with strong roots based in social and cultural norms.

Over the past several years, a lot of advancements have been made in the field of entrepreneurship making the field more rigorous and relevant. However, one of the areas that needs more attention in entrepreneurial research is the role of context. Putting things into context, or contextualization, is an important way of finding new explanations for the various existing research questions and theories (Foss et al, 2013; Sarasvathy and Venkataraman, 2011). When a research question is looked at in its natural setting, various attributes and aspects of the research setting also become a part of the entire process and add unique perspectives to the research. This provides the opportunity to advance existing theoretical frameworks or even develop new ones. Hence questions such as why are certain

individuals more prone to entrepreneurship than others would benefit from looking at the settings and the varied contextual factors that surround these individuals (Zahra, Wright and Abdelgawad, 2014). Sarasvathy and Venkataraman (2011) point out that existing entrepreneurship field does not have a coherent framework. As a result of this, even though the field has expanded substantially, a lot of it is just noise and significant changes have been limited. By the use of contextualizing, the various theories, models and frameworks that have developed can be integrated into novel theoretical frameworks that would have a substantial effect on the advancement of knowledge (Zahra and Wright, 2011). Another important benefit of contextualization is that it can highlight some important questions and aspects that require deeper analysis (Wiklund and Shepherd, 2011). This study highlights the importance of looking at entrepreneurship and its intentions in context of the social environment, in this case family, that individuals are brought up in so as to provide an explanation of differences in their attitude, perceived behavioural control and subjective norms. In this study, various factors and variables that have individually been studied previously have been consolidated into a comprehensive model. Several variables tested in this study, such as parental role models, support and encouragement, role of past experience amongst others, stem from earlier research studies that have analysed their importance in studying entrepreneurial intentions. Hence, this study aims to advance the field of entrepreneurship by contextualization the development of entrepreneurial intentions and integrating several existing variables and models of predicting entrepreneurial intentions under a single, comprehensive framework.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY AND DESIGN

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to describe the philosophy and ideology behind the research and data collection for this thesis. This chapter will illustrate in detail the various research philosophies, strategies, data collection and data analysis techniques that will be used throughout the research process.

The structure of the chapter will follow the '*research onion*' technique described by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009 (Figure 3.1). Saunders et al (2009) suggest that before deciding on the data collection and analysis techniques, there are several other essential layers of the research process that must be addressed. The chapter begins by describing the various research philosophies that are used in social science research. This is followed by a discussion on the purpose of the research, which is used to identify the approach and strategy followed in this study. The chapter concludes by providing a brief discussion on ethical consideration kept in mind while conducting the research as well as the issues surrounding consent and anonymity of the subject.

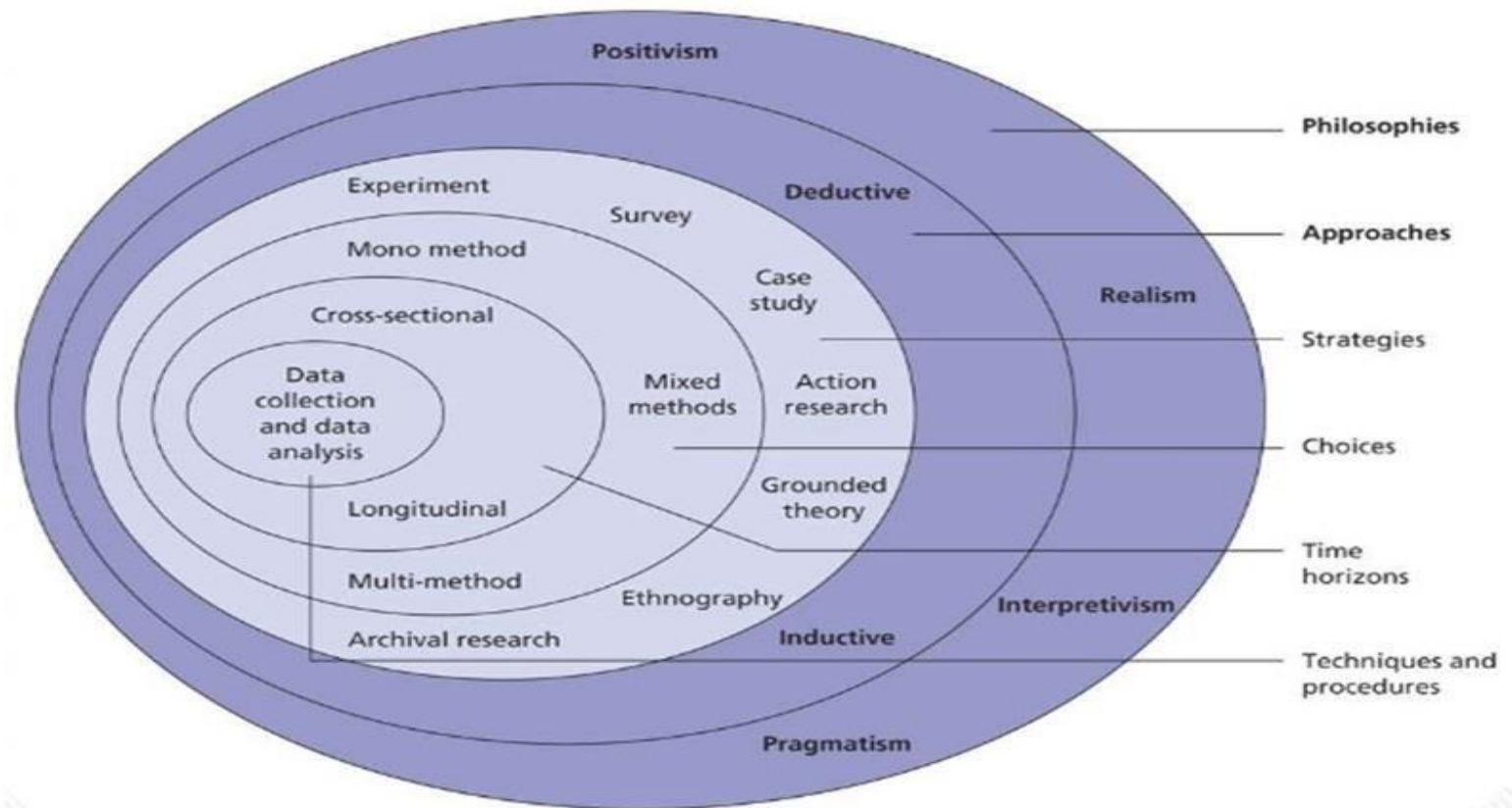


Figure 3.1: Research Onion (Adapted from Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009)

3.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHIES

From a broad perspective, the term research philosophy refers simply to the development of knowledge. While this may sound like a daunting task at first, all research is essentially intended for the development of knowledge in a specific field. The research philosophy one adopts is based on certain views and presuppositions regarding the world and these are important in demarcating the specific research strategy and methods that will be adopted (Saunders et al, 2009).

Generally speaking, considerations of research philosophy can be important in research due to several reasons. Firstly, it helps the researcher to identify the evidence that is required and how it can be collected in order to obtain the most applicable conclusions (Bryman, 2015; Silverman, 2016). Secondly, it is an important tool for identifying the drawbacks of specific approaches and hence assists in highlighting and developing the most appropriate research design. Finally, as Saunders et al (2009) point out, no particular research philosophy is ‘better’ than the other. Each of the philosophies has been developed with different perspectives, and hence which one is better depends on the specific research questions. Hence the following chapter will describe the two major ways in which research philosophy can be examined – namely, ontology and epistemology. However, before venturing ahead on the debate of which research philosophy is more suitable than the other, it is important to mention that in practical terms it is often not possible to pick just one philosophical position to best describe the research question and methodology. Such an approach has been described as the **pragmatism philosophies** (Ritchie et al, 2013).

3.2.1 Pragmatism

The believers of this research philosophy suggest that if the research question and methodology do not explicitly indicate a particular philosophical line, it is best to use a mixed and variable approach (Ritchie et al, 2013). The mixed-methods approach is often

highly recommended and more appropriate when the various philosophies are adopted as a continuum within a study rather than when they are taken in opposing positions (Seale, 1999). The pragmatism approach is more appealing to researchers as it provides them with the opportunity to study what is important to them, in a way that they find most appropriate and use the results to provide the most suitable explanations (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998).

3.2.2 Ontology

Easterby-Smith et al (2012) claim that majority of the debates among research philosophers are based around the topic of ontology. Ontology is concerned with the philosophical question about the ‘nature of reality’ or the ‘nature of being’. Ontological considerations help us to develop perceptions about human nature and how these can be used to better understand and uncover social phenomena (David and Sutton, 2004). The two basic aspects of ontology revolve around the ideas of **objectivism** and **subjectivism**.

Objectivism represents the ideology that social entities exist external to social actors. That is, the social phenomena and their significance exist independently of the various social actors involved with them (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Therefore, along these lines of thought an organisation can be considered as an ‘object’ separate from the associated individuals and can also be considered a social order that compels the individuals involved with it to act according to its requirements. However, it is also believed that the objective aspect of organisations and entities can sometimes be less important, and a better approach is when individuals attached with organisations attach their thoughts and interpretations and provide a more subjective outlook to the entity (Easterby-Smith, 2012).

Subjectivism believers contest the claim that actors/individuals have no role to play in shaping the ‘nature of reality’ of organisations. This approach indicates that the social entities and phenomena are not isolated from the actors involved, but in fact are

developed from the perceptions and actions of all those social actors. The interactions between social actors/individuals are responsible for shaping the reality and the social world as we see it. Reality and social order are constantly evolving and hence must be viewed from a more subjective outlook (Bryman and Bell, 2007). One must be able to understand the meaning and motivations that underlie the actions of individuals in order to be able to clearly understand the actions themselves. The views of the subjectivists argue that different individuals assess situations in different ways, and their actions and social interactions are based on and affected by how they perceive the various situations. Therefore, as a researcher following a subjectivist philosophy one must be able to understand the reality of the individuals in order to understand their motives, actions and intentions (Remenyi et al, 1998).

3.2.3 Epistemology

Having discussed the ‘nature of reality’ and the objective and subjective views surrounding it, Epistemology compels us to think and analyse the ‘nature of knowledge’ within a particular field of study (Saunders et al, 2009). The underlying question here is, what is considered acceptable knowledge and how it should be acquired (Miller and Brewer, 2003; Bryman and Bell, 2007). The point of debate under this philosophy revolves around whether, similar to the field of natural sciences, defined laws, principles and techniques should be used to study the social world or whether the feelings, attitudes and varying logics of human nature should be considered and hence studied from a different perspective (Ritchie et al, 2013).

Positivism is the term given to describe the kind of research that is usually conducted by physical and natural scientists. It refers to developing generalisable laws, theories and hypotheses which are tested by research of ‘observable’ social phenomena (Snape and Spencer, 2003). However, the main point of criticism for this approach for a social scientists perspective is that, as mentioned, only phenomena that can be observed

can be used for analysis and theory development. Also, the researcher is taken to be completely 'external' to the subjects of the study. While this approach is beneficial for developing quantifiable data, it is often not the most appropriate strategy for social science research (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011).

Realism is another research philosophy that branches out from epistemology. Similar to the ideas of positivism, realism also believes in following a scientific approach towards understanding and developing knowledge (Madill, Jordan and Shirley, 2000). The philosophy of realism states that apart from the mind and its contents, there is a reality that exists externally and it must be understood via systematic data collection and interpretation of the data. The believers of direct realism advocate that our senses let us experience the world accurately and 'what we see is what we get' (Bhaskar, 2013). However, the contradictory thought process of the critical realists suggests that our senses can deceive us. They believe that the social world as we see it, is in fact just images and sensations developed by our senses and are not real. While direct realists believe at studying the social or business/management world at one level, the critical realists believe in a multi-level study approach (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

Interpretivism approach questions the views of the positivists and believes that the social world is too complex to be bound by specific rules and theories. They believe that by using general laws and theories to explain social phenomena, a lot of the rich insights and intriguing details get lost. The advocates of this philosophy believe that it is essential to understand the differences amongst individuals and view the social world from their perspective, in order to be able to understand and interpret their actions. The main challenge for any researcher is to be able to visualise the situation from the perspective of their subject (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011). This becomes even more essential for researchers belonging to the managerial, behavioural or marketing research fields as each situation is complex and unique and hence cannot be judged based on fixed rules and laws.

As mentioned earlier, while it is very important to develop an inclination towards a particular philosophical position before planning the research, however it is not necessary to follow only one approach throughout the study (Silverman, 2016). It is possible that the researcher considers positivist approach appropriate for a particular aspect of the research, whereas an interpretivist's approach could be considered more appropriate for another aspect depending on the judgment of the researcher.

In fact, it is often not practically possible for the researcher to use only one specific philosophical approach towards a particular topic in social science research (Easterby-Smith et al, 2012). Hence based on this discussion, it has been decided to take the middle path and incorporate the most appropriate aspects from two of the most dominant research philosophies in social science – the positivist's view and the interpretivist's view. This is based on Laughlin's (1995) view of 'middle-range' thinking approach. Such an approach is suitable for this study as the study first aims to understand the complex role played by family following an in-depth qualitative analysis, following this a more rigorous approach will be applied when the general findings from the qualitative study will be tested in a more 'scientific' manner following the positivist philosophy.

3.2.4 Middle-Range Thinking Approach (Laughlin, 1995)

Laughlin (1995) developed a theory based on some of the most accepted social science research philosophies. He defined three basic terms that would be required to develop an independent standpoint in research.

Firstly, **Theory** refers to the extent to which the researcher depends on previous theories and theoretical frameworks to develop the hypotheses in his research. Secondly, the **Methodology**, as the name implies, refers to the choice of techniques and methods used, the role played by the observer of the phenomena etc. Lastly, the **Choice/Change**

refers to the intention behind the investigation. That is, whether or not the intention is to highlight some change in the phenomena being observed.

Based on these three key concepts of the theory, Laughlin (1995) suggested that following a positivist approach towards research highlights increased the importance of ‘theory’ and ‘methodology’ aspects but shows low level of ‘change’. Due to the highly structured and well-defined nature of the theories and methodologies used, the scope for critique and change is greatly reduced. At the other end of the spectrum, following an interpretivist approach, indicates reduced stress on ‘theory’ and ‘methodology’. Laughlin concluded that since the followers of such an approach have a subjective perception and outlook towards the social world and personal values/opinions are important, there is once again no scope for change or critique under this approach. Drawing from both these theories, Laughlin offered a middle road, and positioned his theory in the middle of these two extremes. As explained in Table 3.1, his approach contained intermediate amounts of ‘theory’ dependence and ‘methodological’ boundaries along with a medium level of scope for ‘Change’.

	Positivist tradition	Middle-range thinking tradition	Interpretivist tradition
Theory Characteristics			
Ontological belief	Generalisable world waiting to be discovered	‘Skeletal’ generalisations possible	Generalisations may not be there to be discovered
Role of theory	Definable theory with hypotheses to test	‘Skeletal’ theory with some broad understanding of relationships	Ill-defined theory with no prior hypotheses
Methodology characteristics			
Role of observer and human nature belief	Observer independent and irrelevant	Observer important and always part of the process of discovery	Observer important and always part of the process of discovery
Nature of method	Structured, quantitative method	Definable approach but subject to refinement in actual situation, invariably qualitative	Unstructured, ill-defined, qualitative approach
Conclusions derived	Tight conclusions about findings	Reasonably conclusive tied to ‘skeletal’ theory and empirical richness	Ill-defined and inconclusive conclusions but empirically rich in detail
Validity criteria	Statistical inference	Meanings: researcher plus researched	Meanings: researched
Change characteristics	Low emphasis on changing status quo	Medium emphasis open to radical change and maintenance of status quo	Low emphasis on changing status quo

Table 3.1: Characteristics of ‘Middle-Range Thinking’ Approach. Adapted from Laughlin (1995)

The outlook that the middle range thinking approach held regarding the use of theory, is that while subjective views and perceptions of humans are important for drawing some generalisations and interpretations, the perspective bias that is often associated with such approaches cannot be ignored. As a result of this, the middle range thinking approach suggests that opinions and perceptions can be used to develop a ‘skeletal’ theory, but

structured empirical investigations are required to complete the theory and make it meaningful (Laughlin, 1995). Therefore, by adopting this approach, a researcher can ensure that the advantages of both a positivist and an interpretivist approach are available in the study. And at the same time avoid the drawbacks of both, such as pre-mature theorising from a positivist's approach and excessive generalisation and indefinite conclusions from an interpretivist's approach.

Following such a 'middle range' approach was appropriate from the perspective of this study as well. Initially, a 'skeletal theory' was developed based on extensive review of literature highlighting the role of family in developing entrepreneurial intentions. These preliminary insights from the literature were further refined after ethnographic studies on six families in New Delhi during the first phase of fieldwork (Chapter 4). Throughout the course of data gathering and analysis, the skeletal theory was expanded upon and made more concrete, especially with the addition of quantitative results in order to supplement the qualitative results (Chapter 7).

Moving on, similar to the approach taken towards the use of 'theory', the aspect of 'methodology' also followed a middle-road under Laughlin's philosophy. Unlike the positivist's approach, the methodology aspect is not strictly bound by defined methods of observation and data collection and the analysis of the data is not purely restricted to quantitative methods (Smith, 2014). However, it is also in some contradiction with a completely interpretivist's approach. Under the middle-range thinking approach, there is to some degree a defined and quantifiable way of conducting observations and collecting data. However, there is also room for the researchers own perceptions and more subjective interpretations of the phenomena. The methodology aspect also sets only 'skeletal' rules and guidelines on how the information should be gathered and interpreted leaving ample space of modifications based on specific situations (Laughlin, 1995; Smith, 2014).

Following from this, it was decided not to remain restricted to only one method of data collection and analysis for this study, but instead use methods originating from varied research philosophies in order to get a holistic picture. It was decided to follow an open and more qualitative approach while trying to understand what the various factors are that are important within a family, and how these could affect an individual's entrepreneurial intentions. However, a more structured and quantifiable approach was adopted while trying to highlight the main factors and the extent to which they can influence entrepreneurial intentions of individuals.

Lastly, the aspect of 'change' is different from both the positivist as well as the interpretivist approach. While both these traditional approaches are averse to change and prefer to maintain the status quo, under the middle range thinking approach 'change' is acceptable after cautious evaluation and judgment of the situation (Laughlin, 1995). Following a similar approach, this study appreciates the significant contributions of previous research studies in the field of predicting entrepreneurial intentions, but also highlights the need to incorporate changes in existing frameworks that take into consideration the changing economic and social conditions. As mentioned previously, a large amount of research on entrepreneurship in the past has focussed on western countries, but with the growing importance of developing countries like India, there is a need to accept this change and ensure that existing frameworks remain suitable. Similarly, with changes that are bound to take place in the socio-cultural environment over time, there is further need to assess these dynamic changes and develop methodologies and theories that best capture these changes.

Laughlin (1995) was not alone in suggesting a middle-road between the more accepted and traditional research philosophies. Scholars in the past such as Gans (1968) were also averse to the idea of extreme philosophies and considered such approaches myopic. Several scholars suggested that while having a structured and formal approach in

terms of rules and regulations are important, they should be considered as external, as they cannot always explain human behaviour and actions (Bakken and Hernes, 2006; Bhaskar and Hartwig, 2010). Therefore, social phenomena under investigation should always be inspected from both an objective as well as a subjective perspective (Strauss and Cobin, 1998). This study achieves this by following two distinctive approaches. Initially, the subjective approach was useful in understanding, defining and developing key constructs of the family dimension and the objective approach that followed was helpful in identifying the extent, and manner in which these various constructs influence EI.

3.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Having decided upon the philosophy that will be guiding the research, the next step was to ascertain what was the main ‘purpose’ of the study being conducted? From the perspective of social science research, a study can have several different purposes. These could include trying to *explore* a specific social phenomenon, to further *describe* an already defined phenomenon or to *explain* the phenomenon (Babbie, 2012). Therefore, based on this understanding, the purpose of a social science study like this one can be *Exploratory, Descriptive* or *Explanatory*.

The purpose of an exploratory study is to help the research develop a better understanding of a topic or social phenomena under consideration. This is usually the most initial part of research on any topic as it helps to establish whether the topic is suitable for further detailed research and if so what would be the most appropriate methods of study. Having conducted the basic exploratory study, the next step would involve going further and conducting a descriptive study. The main purpose here is describing the observations that are made regarding the topic under investigation. Usually they are limited to answering questions of ‘What, Where, When and How’. However, any study would be incomplete without trying to find an answer to the ‘Why’ question. When the aim of the

research and the researcher becomes finding an answer to why a social practice/phenomena occurs, the study is considered to be explanatory in nature (Babbie, 2012).

Based on the above discussion, once again pointing out only one purpose for this study was not considered suitable. This study begins in an ‘exploratory’ manner. The main aim during the initial stages of the study was to develop an understanding of the Indian family and to explore the dynamics that exist within the family systems which could potentially affect the development of entrepreneurial intentions in the youth of the families. Additionally, the study also aimed at uncovering certain factors which could provide indications towards the role that family plays in career decisions of the youth and specifically intentions towards entrepreneurship. Ethnographic studies on six families were conducted as part of the exploratory process to help define the rest of the study. The next stage of the study took a more descriptive approach. Results obtained from the exploratory study, helped to provide a structure and develop specific aims and testable hypothesis for the study. Lastly, the study ventured into the explanatory side where the hypotheses that were developed based on the ethnographies were tested by means of a questionnaire. These were used to determine whether family is an important factor to study when predicting intentions but also helped to determine why it is important and how it can affect the development of intentions.

3.4 RESEARCH APPROACH

As per Figure 3.1, having positioned the study based on research philosophies and purpose, the next ‘layer’ of the research onion involves identifying the most appropriate research approach. There are two main approaches that can be used while deciding the strategy towards a research topic - the deductive approach, which is often considered to

stem out of the Positivist research philosophy and then the inductive approach which stems out of the Interpretivist philosophy (Saunders et al, 2009).

3.4.1 Deductive Approach to research

A deductive approach towards research involves first developing a theory or hypothesis and then developing a research strategy for testing it rigorously under detailed and well defined conditions. Such an approach is more commonly used in natural science research as compared to social science research (Collis and Hussey, 2003).

The stages of a deductive research approach foremost involve providing a research hypothesis that can be tested and defining the various variables and operational terms involved. This includes explaining the relationship between each of the variables that need to be tested. Following this, the hypotheses are tested by specific quantitative methods and the results are expressed in a quantifiable manner. These results then help the researcher to decide whether the hypotheses have been confirmed or whether it requires further changes and modifications (Robson, 2002). Such an approach was adopted while carrying out the quantitative part of this study (Chapter 6 and 7). A set of hypotheses had been defined before the survey questionnaire was developed. These were prepared based on structured and detailed review of literature surrounding the importance of family and entrepreneurial intentions. Additionally, analysis of the data gathered from qualitative studies, added novel insights into the process of hypotheses formation. Once the hypotheses had been created, the survey was designed in order to test the assumptions of the hypotheses.

There are several advantages that are associated with following a deductive approach towards research. One of the most important characteristics of such an approach is that it helps in testing casual relationships between variables by formulating a hypothesis (Hayes, 2000). Since this approach follows a very structured methodology, the reliability

and validity of the data gathered is upheld. Another important aspect of such a research is that the quantitative data generated is easier to interpret and due to the large sample size involved, is greatly generalisable (Gill and Johnson, 2002). Following a deductive approach expects the researcher to be highly objective about the research and its outcomes. The level of objectivity required is unproblematic if the data is being gathered from secondary sources or through online or postal questionnaires. However, it becomes problematic when the data is gathered by face to face interviews or questionnaires as subjectivity on behalf of the researcher can creep in based on the type of questions asked and the tone in which they are asked amongst others (Teddie and Tashakkori, 2009). Also, the body language and mannerism of the research subjects can influence the way the researcher interprets the results (Saunders et al, 2009).

Finally, as discussed earlier following a strict and rigid methodological approach to any research can lead to the researcher missing out on subtle aspects of human nature and social phenomena that cannot be fully quantified.

3.4.2 Inductive Approach to research

The followers of such an approach let their data guide their research. Instead of beginning with a hypothesis, following such an approach allows the researcher to first collect data, analyse it to understand it better and then use the results of the analysis along with guidance from the literature to develop a hypothesis and theory (Punch, 2013). An inductive approach to research developed with the emergence of social science, which lays more stress on humans and their interpretations of the social world around them. This ability to understand human nature and social practices that cannot always be quantified is one of the most important advantages of the inductive approach (Bryman, 2015). Another advantage is that working one's way upwards from the data is often considered more beneficial as a more informed decision regarding the type of methodology to be used

can be taken (Saunders et al, 2009). Such an approach was followed during the first stage of the research, when ethnographies on six families were conducted. The aim of these studies were to help in the development of specific hypotheses regarding the role of family in entrepreneurial intentions.

In contrast to the deductive approach, the inductive approach involves working with a smaller sample, as the aim is not generalisability but rather to develop a deeper understanding of specific phenomenon and the context in which they occur. The means of data collection will not be rigid and quantitative, rather it would involve a more qualitative approach allowing the subjects to provide alternative explanations to explain the phenomena under investigation (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008).

As it has been made evident in previous sections describing this study, this study has refrained from using only a particular kind of research philosophy or strategy but rather believes in combining the best aspects of each side to develop a method that is most convenient and appropriate for this study. Therefore, in context to the research approaches as well, it has been decided to merge the two approaches to get maximum advantage out of them.

Deciding whether to follow a deductive or an inductive research and the methods that follow depends to a large degree on the nature of the research itself. If there is a large amount of literature available on the topic of research which can help develop a framework and hypotheses based only on the secondary data, then following a deductive approach may be easier. However, if the topic of research is relatively new and sufficient amount of information is not available then it is recommended to generate some data and allow that to guide the development of the hypothesis and research framework (Creswell, 2002). Additionally, a deductive approach can be quicker and low risk. Time has to be spent planning the study prior to data collection but the actual process of gathering data and its analysis is relatively quicker. Contrarily, in an inductive approach ideas and patterns in

data emerge gradually usually over long periods of data collection and analysis. The risk associated with an inductive approach is the possibility that no concrete patterns in data or theories may emerge from the study (Saunders et al, 2009).

The main aim of this research was to add to a theory so that it can help to explain the role families play in developing entrepreneurial intentions amongst the youth. The study began with an Inductive approach, using the qualitative data gathered by ethnographic studies to guide the research forward and develop broad research themes and ideas. This was followed by detailed review of the literature on entrepreneurial intentions and family, its various characteristics and the aspects that emerge from the ethnographic studies.

Combining the primary data along with the secondary data helped to formulate precise research questions and theoretical framework. This led to the second part of the study which followed the deductive approach. Based on the review of the literature and the novel findings of the qualitative research, a set of specific hypotheses were developed. These were then tested by following a more structured approach in the form of surveys to either prove or disprove each of the hypotheses.

3.5 RESEARCH STRATEGY

While it is paramount to clearly understand the research philosophy and approach that a study requires, the most important aspect would be to understand the correct research strategy that underlies them. Research strategy refers to the various techniques that are used to gather data to answer the research question (Ritchie et al, 2013). The strategies vary depending on the research philosophy and approach that has been chosen as well as the purpose of the research. Some of the research strategies are more commonly used while following a deductive approach, while some are more useful in an inductive approach. The

choice of research strategy is completely in the hands of the researcher and should be guided by the research topic, objectives, time and resources in hand (Yin, 2003).

From the point of view of the research strategy that will be utilised, since the study involves a mix of a deductive and inductive approach the research methods will also include a mix of different kinds of strategies. This kind of strategy is referred to as the **mixed-method approach** (Punch, 2013; Bryman, 2015). The aim of such an approach is to be able to collect and analyse both qualitative and quantitative data to support the research question. Quantitative techniques refer to strategies and methods that result in number oriented results that can be made into graphs and tested statistically. These include methods such as questionnaires and surveys. On the other hand qualitative techniques refer to those that are more dependent on non-numeric data such as interviews, video footages or data gathered by observation (Saunders et al, 2009; Silverman, 2016).

There are several advantages that have been associated with following a mixed-method approach to research. Firstly, data triangulation, which is using different data collection techniques, helps to corroborate the findings of the study. This is especially important while following a qualitative study to reduce any scope of bias (Creswell and Clark, 2007). Secondly, the techniques can be used in a manner that the outcomes complement each other and help to form a well-rounded and detailed study. For example, using a quantitative technique such as a questionnaire can provide lots of numerical data, but there might still be gaps in the results that can be better understood if a qualitative method such as interviews are used to add to the richness and depth of the data. Or even vice versa, that is when rich and detailed qualitative data is made more statistically reliable and generalisable by conducting questionnaires to complement the interviews (Hussein, 2015). Often, mixed-method approach is used for different aspects of the study. The initial hypotheses and research questions developing stage can be addressed via a qualitative route, while the process of testing the hypotheses can be addressed by following

quantitative techniques. Lastly, a mixed method approach is also adopted by researchers, when one method does not yield sufficient or explainable data and therefore other methods are used to generate more data (Olsen, 2004).

3.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

When research goes beyond the scope of archival and statistical data, into more personal pastures involving interaction with other human beings and collecting data from or about them, it opens up a whole new field of ethical issues that must be considered (Easterby-Smith et al, 2012). Silverman (2009) highlights that it is not only important having considered these ethical issues but it is equally important to write about them to show that the researcher agrees with the relevant ethical values and has made every effort to comply by them throughout the research process. In research, broadly speaking ethics refers to the ‘appropriateness’ of behaviour in relation to not only the research subject, but any other individual that may be affected by the research (Saunders et al, 2009). Based on this definition, ethics is not limited to the process of data collection but also involves the research topic, research design, how data is stored, analysed and eventually how the research is written and presented. Therefore, apart from ensuring that the research is methodologically sound it is equally important for the researcher to ensure that it is morally and ethically sound as well (Zikmund, 2000).

Most of social science research follows one of the two main ethical theories which revolve around the ‘deontological view’ as proposed by Immanuel Kant, and secondly the ‘consequential theory’ as suggested by John Stuart Mills (Burton, 2000). In his ethical theory, Kant suggests that all actions must abide by the rules and obligations that have been laid out. It implies that the end result of any research can never be justified if the means to reach the end were unethical (Silverman, 2013). The second view is based not on the rules but rather on the outcomes and suggests that an act or research may be

considered ethical if it causes maximum benefit to the largest number of individuals involved (Burton, 2000). However, this approach can be hard to follow as it is not always possible to equally weigh the beneficial and detrimental effects of an act/research on different groups. Due to the several different viewpoints that exist in the field of ethics, it is important to maintain a sensitive approach and address as many factors from as many different approaches when considering ethical issues in research (Bryman, 2015).

Burton (2000) suggests that apart from following on the path of the ethical theories, there are certain factors relevant to modern day research that must be kept in mind at all times. These include Autonomy, Privacy, Confidentiality, Non-Maleficence, Fidelity, and Veracity amongst others.

In this study, each of the factors under the ethical consideration have been upheld throughout the different stages of the study including - data collection, analysis and reporting of the data. Some aspects of ethical approaches towards maintaining anonymity and getting consent have been discussed below in some more detail.

3.7 INFORMED CONSENT

Consent is taken from all the individuals involved in the study in order to ensure that they are aware of the kind of information they will be asked to provide and what will happen to the information being provided by them. Additionally, it also signifies that the subject has agreed to willingly take part in the research without any coercion (Kent, 2000).

For each part of the research, consent was taken from the subject before beginning the data collection. Written consent was taken from each of the families that were observed during the ethnographic study. A detailed document containing an explanation of the aim of the study, the reason why observation is important and how it will be conducted as well as what will happen to the data collected was provided to the head of the family. Once approval was received from them, the same document was circulated to all adult members

of the family to ensure that no other individual had any issues or complaints regarding the procedure. The process of observation began only after approval was received from all individuals.

The individuals were informed that they have the right to end the research process at any point that they felt uncomfortable. They were also informed that during the interview process, they can refuse to answer any question that they want. Lastly, they were informed that the results of the study will be kept anonymous and the information will not be used for any other purpose than those detailed in the information sheet. In order to maintain credibility and trust, each family was also given a contact sheet with details of the University, the department and my supervisor to prove genuineness of the research and also allow them to contact us after the research process is complete for any information that may need.

For the quantitative study, once permission from the college principals had been received for conducting the study, consent was taken from each of the students that participated in the study. They were informed that they can choose to leave any question unanswered and were given the choice to pull out from the survey at any point that they wanted.

3.8 ANONYMITY

All individuals who were involved in the study were clearly informed that their names and personal information will not be made accessible to anyone other than the researcher himself. They were made to feel comfortable that any intimate or private information that might be revealed during the observation period will only be used for the research after taking consent from the individuals. This was important from the perspective of the research as well, as it was essential that the participants provide their real opinion and not shy away due to the fear of being embarrassed or having their family details

revealed. Also, since a part of the research required the understanding of family dynamics and the relationship between different members of the family, the individuals were assured that the information that they provide in interviews will not be shared with other members of the family either.

In the survey questionnaires, no questions regarding the name of the students were asked. All the questions regarding personal information and demographics were optional. The students were informed that the information will not be shared with anyone and will not be used for any purpose other than that stated in the cover letter.

3.9 CONCLUSION

The above chapter has described the different research philosophies and approaches that were followed in this study while gathering data. Rather than restricting to a specific type of philosophy and approach, it was decided to follow a middle path in order to receive maximum benefit. The study uses both an inductive and a deductive approach to determine the role played by family in influencing the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals. For the purpose of this, a mixed-method strategy was adopted where both qualitative and quantitative techniques were used to collect and analyse data in order to get a comprehensive picture of the topic under consideration. The initial part of the study where the research idea was refined, research questions and hypotheses formed was addressed by conducting qualitative research in the form of ethnographic studies. Open-ended interviews also formed a part of the ethnographies in this initial phase. Following this, the next stage included structured questionnaires to corroborate the findings of the ethnography and test the hypotheses developed from it. The following chapters will elaborate on each of these techniques and discuss how they aid in the process of data collection and analysis.

CHAPTER 4

QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this primary results chapter is to follow an inductive approach towards the topic under consideration. The chapter explains the methodology and the manner in which the data was collected for the qualitative part of this study. The chapter provides a discussion on how the samples were chosen along with the advantages and disadvantages of the chosen qualitative methods. The main sections in this chapter include the process of data collection that includes details on how to conduct ethnographies, the various stages and methods that form a part of the ethnographic study. This is followed by a description on how data was analysed and a brief discussion on the reliability and validity of qualitative data. The chapter concludes with some limitations associated with ethnographic research methods.

There have been calls for more qualitative work within the general entrepreneurship area (Davidsson and Wiklund, 2001; Gartner and Birley, 2002; Suddaby et al, 2015) and particularly entrepreneurship intention and behaviour (McDougall and Oviatt, 2000; Jones and Coviello, 2005; Seymour, 2006) but the field is dominated by positivist methodological econometric approaches (Schlaegel and Koenig, 2014). This notwithstanding, qualitative research offers a rich research route for theory building (Eisenhardt, 1989). Specifically, when the research interest includes issues that are not quantifiable, such as behaviours, actions and intentions, a qualitative approach is best suited. The aim for such research is usually towards understanding and defining concepts, rather than merely measuring them (Hammersley, 1992; Jack and Anderson, 2002). Accordingly, the researcher adopted a qualitative methodology to gather data in India. Interviews by themselves would not provide the researcher with the depth of information

to answer the research question and thus an ethnographic approach was used to have a greater understanding about EI. In order to get the true meaning behind communications that take place between the researcher and the subject, or the communications that are observed by the researcher it is important to be aware of the context, and the circumstances, in which these communications take place. This is what makes ethnography an interesting research tool to use when studying aspects related to human life and behaviour (Hammersley, 2016). Ethnographic studies are vital tools for uncovering the nuances of social and cultural settings and help in identifying underlying trends (Davidsson et al, 2001; Neergaard and Ulhøi, 2007). The use of ethnography provides a broader frame within which interpretations of the observations can be made in contrast to focus groups where a few groups of individuals are observed for only a few hours. Also, the somewhat formal research setting can have an impact of the reliability and validity of the data, as compared to a more natural setting that is used in ethnographies (Agar and MacDonald, 1995; Carey, 1994). In addition to this, the aim of a focus group is to get an idea of the views and opinions held by people on a particular topic of interest. One problem that is often associated with focus groups is the development of a group thinking, where influenced by a few individuals the entire group develops a similar approach or thinking towards the topic leading to a lack in depth and richness of the data (Krueger and Casey, 2014; Carey, 1994). In contrast, since the researcher in this study wanted to develop themes of interest based on the daily observations and obtain rich and varied data, an ethnographic study was considered most appropriate.

4.2 PROCESS OF DATA COLLECTION

This section defines the main technique that has been used for collecting data for this study. It begins with a description on Ethnographic Studies as the main method for collecting qualitative data. This will be followed by discussing how interviews were

conducted during the ethnographic study, in order to supplement the data collected by observation.

4.2.1 Gaining Access

For any qualitative research that involves individuals or groups, the first step in the process of data collection is related to gaining access to those individuals and the surroundings in which research will take place (Easterby-Smith et al, 2012). Depending on the type of research and the requirements of the study, the researcher can gain access to the subjects of the study either covertly or overtly (Silverman, 2009). Covert research refers to studies that have been conducted undisclosed and without proper knowledge of the subjects. This type of research often raises several ethical issues. Overt research on the other hand, is conducted willingly with full knowledge and approval of the participants and in open settings. This study was conducted in an overt manner, in line with all ethical considerations.

Gaining access for the first part of the research, which entailed the ethnographic studies, was relatively harder than obtaining access for quantitative studies, since it required close contact with the entire family for several days at a stretch. This close proximity research made several individuals reluctant to participate in the research and they eventually refused access. In order to gain access, several families were personally met and even communicated with over the phone to explain the research topic and how the ethnography would be conducted. The subjects were reassured that complete care would be taken to ensure that every family member is comfortable with the research setting. It was also clarified that the information will be confidential and anonymous as per the ethical guidelines of the study. Finally, three families were identified through personal contacts, following the method of convenience sampling. Furthermore, each of these three families recommended one additional family each that agreed to take part in

the study. Through this method of convenience sampling and snow-balling, a total sample of six families was achieved for the process of data collection. With regard to sample size, qualitative researchers tend to judge the adequacy of a sample from a perspective focused upon understanding of saturation (Fusch and Ness, 2015). A study by Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) on data saturation showed that out of the total 60 interviews that they had conducted, the themes that were generated following thematic analysis of the first six interviews provided 73% of the total themes from all 60 interviews. The next 6 interviews added another 17% bringing the total to 90%. Hence they suggest that saturation is reached within the first 12 interviews. Keeping this in mind, as well as considering the time constraints, the researcher decided to develop a sample of six families for the ethnographies. Each family is studied as an individual case study. Additionally, since interviews were conducted with various members of the families, data from a total of 32 individuals over a period of 6 weeks was used for analysis. Hence, the amount of data gathered was considered to be sufficient to highlight the variability, but also bring out patterns that stand out despite the variability. Previous work by Eisenhardt (1989) also suggests that between 4-10 case studies or interviews in qualitative research is sufficient for collecting the required amount of data without the risk of being neither compromised nor saturated.

The following section will now describe in detail the methods that were used to collect data from the individuals and families selected for the study.

4.2.2 Ethnography

Historically, quantitative methods of data collection have held a dominant position in social science research. However, this view has changed over the past few years and a growing interest has been witnessed in qualitative methods of research such as Ethnographies (Saunders et al, 2009).

The term Ethnography is often used to refer to most kinds of qualitative study, which are looking to provide an in-depth and detailed account of day-to-day life and human cultural practices. As a result of this, it is one of the most commonly used methods for conducting anthropological research. Specifically, Ethnography can be defined as the process of studying human culture by close observation, followed by its interpretation. It is considered to be a 'research process, method and product' whose ultimate aim is to be able to understand culture (Hoey, 2014). The main characteristics of ethnographic research include, inter alia, deciphering patterns within social interactions (Gumperz, 1981) and in-depth analysis of social phenomena and social cultures (Lutz, 1981; Angrosino, 2007).

Essentially ethnographies are considered as a process of 'story-telling', although they are important tools for developing and testing theories as well (Denzin, 1978). As a research technique, ethnography is one of the most basic and oldest forms of qualitative research (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007), the roots of which are strongly grounded in an 'Inductive' approach. It has been suggested that ethnographies have some resemblance with the natural way that individuals, across different cultures, make sense of everyday life. While this type of subjectivity can be considered to be a disadvantage, it is also argued by some that such an open-ended process is the only way that social processes can be understood and explained. Supporters of ethnographic research argue that '*artificial*' methods of research such as structured questionnaires and interviews are incompetent means for capturing the real meaning behind human activities and social phenomena. Since the behaviour or culture under investigation must be studied in the actual context in which it takes place, external instruments such as surveys and questionnaires rely on manipulating variables rather than descriptive analysis by observation and participation (Tuckman, 1999). Therefore, ethnography draws more from the *Interpretivism* research philosophy (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007).

Similar to the role played by a journalist, the responsibility of an ethnographer is to describe and explain social phenomena and cultures of the research subject to the outside world. However, unlike a journalist, the responsibility of an ethnographer does not end at just reporting the events. The most important role of an ethnographer is to interpret the situations and the events and to be able to relate those observations to the social and cultural constructs in which the events take place (Saunders et al, 2009; Zemliansky, 2008). In order to be able to comprehensively understand and fully represent cultures and social phenomena, an ethnographer must observe what is called an *emic* perspective. This strategy allows the ethnographer to gain an ‘insider’s’ perspective on the issue or culture under study. As compared to having an *etic* perspective, which provides an analytical viewpoint on the issue, an emic perspective assists the ethnographer to assess the situation from a more critical angle. This allows for meanings to ‘emerge’ from the situations themselves, rather than the researcher enforcing the ideas and meanings from pre-existing models onto the new situations being studied (Hoey, 2014). Therefore, the role of an ethnographer is to analyse the social phenomena from the perspective of an ‘outsider’, but at the same time try to understand the phenomena from the outlook of an ‘insider’ (Nurani, 2008).

An important aspect of Ethnography, which is dissimilar to several other research techniques such as interviews and quantitative surveys, is that following such an approach does not require the hypothesis to be developed before the process of data collection begins. In fact, the lack of a hypothesis and preconceptions about the study allow the researcher to develop an in-depth understanding of the subject that is not influenced by previous research and ideas from the literature and hence generate novel insights into the subject (Gay and Airasian, 1992; Tuckman, 1999). This is one of the main reasons, why this technique is applicable during the initial stages of this research project. The research aims to develop a deeper understanding of the Indian familial set-up and values and what

role they might play in influencing the entrepreneurial intentions of Indian youth. The data that was collected by conducting ethnographic studies of selected families, helped in the refinement of the theoretical framework and development of an empirical framework of this research subject which will further be tested by quantitative methods. The data helped to unveil the role that family plays in development of entrepreneurial intentions by influencing the three key antecedents of intentions as described by Ajzen (1991) in the Theory of Planned Behaviour.

Ethnography, as a research method, has two main characteristics that must be kept in mind while conducting the research as well as analysing the data. Firstly, Ethnography is Qualitative and secondly, Ethnography is Subjective (Zemliansky, 2008).

Ethnographic study is a form of pure qualitative research. The aim of a researcher conducting ethnographic research is not usually to develop a generalisable outcome or theory that can be applied to different groups, situations or cultures (Silverman, 2016). In fact, in complete contrast, the aim of such studies is to delve into as much depth as possible regarding the small social group or specific phenomena under investigation. As a result of this nature of the study, there is limited dependence on statistical methods to quantify the results (Saunders et al, 2009). However, in this study ethnographic studies on families from New Delhi were conducted with the aim of trying to identify themes that are commonly found in Indian families that could potentially influence the development of entrepreneurial intentions in the youth.

This is an essential part of the research process that must be clear to novice ethnographers, like myself. It is common for researchers to stress on the ‘objectivity’ and universal applicability of their ideas and research. We have often been trained to believe that research that cannot be applied to a large number of situations and one that cannot be replicated, is essentially useless (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995). However, it is important to keep in mind the ‘purpose’ with which the research was undertaken.

Therefore, for an ethnographer, whose main aim is to explore the nuances of specific cultural and social phenomena, the stress should always be on the depth of the research and information and not on the quantity or breadth of the research (Zemliansky, 2008). Although, the outcomes of Ethnography are not directly applicable to other studies, the research can be used to inform other researchers and provide a ‘snapshot’ of specific cultures and phenomena to others (Whitehead, 2005).

Ethnography is Subjective. As an ethnographer, one of the main requirements is to be able to identify and isolate the atypical findings or situations from amongst the usual occurring. From the perspective of an ethnographer, something that is common and unexciting for some individuals might be considered strange and unusual by others (Madison, 2011). As a result of this, in order to be able to develop an in-depth understanding of social phenomena and culture, the ethnographer must be adept at detecting, interpreting and explaining such phenomena (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007).

This often raises the issue of ethnography being a highly subjective form of study. Every researcher has their own past-experiences, pre-conceptions and attitudes that come into play while interpreting and explaining various social phenomena in an ethnographic study. Hence, the description depends on the how the ethnographer has perceived the phenomena under study (Huspek, 1994). However, this is not considered a drawback within the field of Ethnography. In fact, several researchers consider these differences in perceptions to be of great importance that help provide the richness of data that is expected from an ethnographic study. Additionally, since ethnographers are usually closely linked to the cultures that they are studying, they can provide an ‘insider’s view’ on social phenomena. Observing and actively participating in the culture being studied allows ethnographers to uncover hidden meanings of social phenomena and explain them to those external to the culture. Although, it is not necessary that the ethnographer must belong to the culture that is being studied, but having spent more time within the culture than others,

it gives the ethnographer more authority to write about it and adds more depth to the writing. Being an active part of the study, it is encouraged that the ethnographer provides their own opinions and reactions about the observations to form a detailed and descriptive account of the social phenomena and culture (Hoey, 2014; Zemliansky, 2008).

Like with any other research methodology forming the right research questions is one of the most basic yet essential aspects. This becomes even more vital in the case of qualitative methodologies like ethnographies due to their highly biased and subjective nature.

4.2.3 Asking the right Ethnographic questions

The aim of an ethnographic study is not limited to the observation of different cultures but also includes discerning the underlying patterns of behaviour and culture. Hence, apart from recording the observations an ethnographer must be able to construct and ask the right questions that can help in interpretations of the observations.

“An ethnographer and a journalist may both gather information about the same event but write up their accounts very differently. A standard daily newspaper reporter, for example, conducts research in an attempt to be objective: to give the who, what, where, when, and why of an event for a readership that expects facts without too much interpretation. As a fieldworker, your purpose is to collect and consider multiple sources of information, not facts alone, to convey the perspective of the people about the culture you study” (Sunstein and Chiseri-Strater, 1997, 13-14)."

Since, as ethnographers, we are interested not only in collecting the facts, but also in understanding what those facts imply and how they are relevant to the culture under consideration it is essential that the questions asked guide us in the direction of the answers. Although this seemed as a daunting task to a greenhorn ethnographer like myself, this study also began by asking the most basic questions: Who; What; Why; Where; When; and, How (Westby et al, 2003)?

Clearly defining the target group and the site or location of the study is critical for an ethnography. Identifying ‘who’ is being studied and ‘where’, helps in the formulation

of the remaining questions that an ethnographer may be interested in. However, the ‘who’ is not only limited to identifying the group that is being studied. It is also important to be able to do a comparative analysis of the behaviours of different individuals within the group being studied. For example, comparing the behaviour of men and women or old and young individuals of the same community under the same conditions. This is important to identify whether the rules and ways of life are same of every individual or whether they are subjective to ‘who’ is under consideration (Zemliansky, 2008; Hoey, 2014). From the perspective of this study, the ‘who’ had been clearly identified as the youngest generation or the youth of the family, based on the definition provided in chapter 1, the individuals studied as youth in this study were those belonging to the age group of 18 – 34 years. As a part of the ethnographies conducted in this study, it was evident that the two main groups that the researcher was interested in analysing and understanding were the youth and then the entire ‘family’ as one and the interactions and relationships that exist between these two groups. In this exploratory and descriptive part of the study, the main aim of the researcher was to understand the interactions between the two groups, and then use the information gained from here to test in a more structured manner in the quantitative study. In the quantitative study that follows, the researcher tests the themes developed from here via a questionnaire on a student population. The student population that consists of individuals between the ages of 18-21 years was used as a proxy for the youth. As will be discussed in the chapters on the quantitative study these individuals as considered to be at the brink of making their career decisions, hence all the processes and influences of their socialization would be active in helping them form the intentions for the actions that they will take in the coming years. As a result of this, while the sample used in the qualitative study is broader so as to gather and develop a broader perspective on the role of the family, the sample in the quantitative study will be more focussed on testing these hypothesis on a more specific sub-section of the youth population.

Once this basic question has been answered, the next most important thing was to be able to identify ‘what’ activities are going on within the target group that attracts the attention of the researcher. In such situations, being an outsider to the community or group being studied can be beneficial as it helps to notice behaviours, social interactions and patterns that are different and uncommon. However, belonging to the same community can have its advantages in an ethnographic study as well. Being an ‘insider’ provides useful insights during the interpretation of the events that the researcher witnesses. Since there is a better understanding of what is going on, it is often easier to understand why it is happening and the reason behind it (Westby et al, 2003; Hoey, 2014). This study was directed in understanding and highlighting the interactions and relationship between the two ‘who’ groups, i.e. the youth and the family, which were identified as per the previous question. In order to do so, all the patterns, behaviours and interactions between these two entities were closely studied.

Another interesting question that can be asked by an ethnographer is ‘When’ the activities that are being observed are taking place. Whether they always take place at the same time, or always in the same order can help in determining trends and patterns in behaviour. Also, taking note of body language or any other non-verbal cues of individuals can be important as it can help to identify whether there are certain characteristics that can prompt certain specific behaviours.

While all these questions are important during the process of observation, the most important question that an ethnographer must ask, retrospectively, is ‘Why’ do the events happen. This requires linking together the answers obtained by asking the above questions along with an in-depth introspection of the individuals that make up the study group.

In order to conduct a successful ethnographic study and generate useful answers to the questions described above there are several research methods that can be used.

4.3 STAGES IN CONDUCTING AN ETHNOGRAPHY

The process of conducting an Ethnography can be divided into 5 distinct stages as per Singleton and Straits (2005). Conducting an ethnographic research is easier than several other research methods as it does not depend on any elaborate and expensive tools and equipment and can be conducted at almost any place. But if not conducted in an organised and meticulous manner, the large amounts of data generated can become hard to interpret and analyse (Wolcott, 1999; Roper and Shapira, 2000).

Stage 1: Problem Formulation refers to the identification of the problem or phenomenon that one is interested in studying about. For this research, the ‘problem’ that was of interest was identifying the role that family can play in developing entrepreneurial intentions amongst the Indian youth. A review of the literature on entrepreneurship revealed that Family plays an important role in the decision to become an entrepreneur and in the entire entrepreneurial process overall. However, there was a gap in the literature concerning the role that family plays in developing entrepreneurial intentions especially from the perspective of India. Ethnography was considered to be the perfect tool to delve further into a social phenomenon that needs more elaboration and understanding (Singleton and Straits, 2005).

Stage 2: Identifying research area/setting is the next important aspect to be addressed while conducting an ethnography. The research area should be such that it allows clear observation to the researcher. Also, while it is important that the researcher does not obviously stand out in the midst of the research subjects, it is also important that the researcher is not very intimately associated with the research subject either, as both these could lead to biased observations (Sangasubana, 2011). For this research, 6 Indian families were identified. They were observed within their homes, where they are most comfortable and hence allowed the researcher to get a sense of their real personal nature. The observation extended from their homes, to their work places, social events and

gatherings depending on the comfort level of each family. Each family was observed for a period ranging from 3-5 days. Contrary to anthropological ethnographies that extend over long periods of time, the use of ethnographies in applied fields such as Management and Business are now adopting the method of 'Focussed' or 'Rapid' ethnographies (Millen, 2000; Knoblauch, 2005). Rather than being dependent on time, these are more intensive forms of ethnographies, which use multi-person teams for data gathering or use multi-site approaches to gather large amount of data, in a quicker time frame (Hughes et al, 1995). Short-term ethnographies, such as those used here take a more theoretically-driven approach and are more interventional. That is to say that the research is more intensive in gathering data through increased interactions with various members of the group, accompanying to various sites and occasions amongst other intensive mechanisms (Pink and Morgan, 2013).

Stage 3: Gaining access is another essential aspect for any active qualitative study. Access to the research setting is usually gained either through a common acquaintance or by participating in the social phenomena as a volunteer to develop trust and then gain access into the lives of the subject group (Feldman, Bell and Berger, 2004). Snowballing and convenience sampling as a technique has been used in this study to identify and gain access to the subject group.

Stage 4: How to 'Present oneself' is a question that must be addressed before beginning the process of data collection. The researcher must clearly define the role that they intend to play throughout the study. Questions such as how covert/overt to be, how much participation is required, have to be answered (Singleton and Straits, 2005). From the perspective of this study, it was decided not to present oneself as a researcher and a distant observer as this may cause the subjects of the study to become conscious. Therefore, while the main aim was to closely observe the families, the researcher also participated in their day-to-day activities and made them feel comfortable with his

presence (Sangasubana, 2011). A commonly discussed paradigm in ethnographic research is the positionality of the researcher. Ethnographic researchers are often asked to account for their positionality in order to add to the validity of the produced results. This has gained some attention in the recent years, with an increasing focus on researchers that research their own communities or individuals from their own cultural backgrounds. Attention is being paid to how the presence of the researcher and his past knowledge can influence the resulting interpretations and observations (Jackson, 1989). With scholars that research their own communities, it has become possible for them to reduce the use of academic jargon while interacting with the subjects and also helps to avoid situations that maybe considered intrusive in the culture (Mihsauh, 1998; Medicine, 2001; Rampton, 1992). This helped the researcher address the issues surrounding social positionality which are usually linked to issues regarding lack of trust and judgementalism between the researcher and the subject (Gould, 2014). Following a similar approach, the researcher tried to maintain a balance between an observer and an active participant in situations that were deemed appropriate based on his understanding of the social and cultural values of Indian families. The knowledge of cultural rules of engagement, both vernal and non-verbal, helped the researcher develop greater trust with the subjects and lead to a greater sense of comfort in the research setting. In most cases, the researcher found a position in the house of the subjects that provided him to a good view and access to the rest of the house, without being too intrusive into the personal space of the family members. This helped address issues of Spatial or physical positionality, which refers to the researcher physically fitting into the research setting and his presence not being obtrusive to the regular activities of the subjects (Gould, 2014). An added advantage that the researcher had for this study, was that the researcher spent on average five days with each of the families under investigation. As a result of this, the subjects developed a sense of comfort, especially towards the last

2-3 days of the observation, which is when the researcher tried to collect most of the direct interviews with the subjects.

Stage 5: Data collection and recording is the final stage. While conducting ethnographies, data collection and recording has to go hand in hand to ensure that none of the information is missed or left out. The following section will elaborate on the various techniques that can be used to gather data for ethnographies (Sangasubana, 2011).

4.4 ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH METHODS

4.4.1 Observation

One of the main research techniques that is most commonly used by ethnographers is observation. Careful and close observation is considered to be one of the most effective ways of studying and understanding any culture or social phenomena (Atkinson and Hammersley, 1994). While this sounds like an unfocussed method for collecting information, ethnographic observation needs to be conducted in a very planned and organised manner and is dependent to a large extent on the goals defined by the researcher (Tedlock, 1991). The aim is not limited to observing individuals and interesting aspects of new cultures but instead it also involves identifying patterns and finding justifications and explanations for those patterns (Reeves et al, 2008; Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007).

The most important step before commencing any observation is asking for permission to observe from the subjects (Jorgensen, 1989). This is essential for maintaining ethical and sound research practices. Secondly, during the process of observation the researcher must always inform the subjects of the study that they will be under observation (Delamont, 2004). The researcher must try to explain the research aim and topic to the subjects and ensure that they are at ease with the presence of the researcher. As an observer, the researcher must attempt to be as inconspicuous and keep a low profile so as not to disrupt the normal activities of the group under observation (Hoey, 2014).

The other requirement for conducting an organised observational study is keeping highly detailed and descriptive notes. An ethnographer must always keep writing, either the observations or the interpretation of what is being observed (Fetterman, 2010). The observation journal of an ethnographer must contain observations, the reflections on those observations, interview questions, answers to interviews, any unusual or explained event or activity (Madison, 2011). A common method used by ethnographers while maintaining a journal is called Double-Entry Journal. This contains the observations of the researcher on one side of the page and the interpretations and explanations for those observations on the opposite side (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007; Zemliansky, 2008). Lastly, an ethnographer must keep in mind that while conducting ethnographic research, he is not only an observer but also a participant in the activities of his subject. Since an ethnographer spends lengthy spans of time with his subject group, he is a participant of the various activities and events that the group goes through (Whitehead, 2005).

From the perspective of this research, six families from New Delhi and the NCR (National Capital Region) were identified as the initial sample based on convenience sampling and then snow-balling. The researcher made use of his personal contacts in order to get access to the samples. The researcher asked his personal contacts to get him in touch with some families that they thought would be willing to participate in this study. In order to reduce the chances of any bias, none of these contacts who were directly related to the researcher (friends or family) were used in the study. These contacts were only asked to identify some families that they thought would be ready to participate in the study. The researcher reached out to each of the families suggested by his contacts by calling them and explaining the premise of the study and details of how it would be conducted. The researcher spoke to the heads of the family in each case, once approval was obtained the researcher then visited the family in their homes and introduced himself and the project to all of the members. Confirmation for participation was only considered when none of the

members expressed any apprehension with the study. In this manner three families agreed to be a part of the study. Once confirmation of participation was obtained, the researcher then requested these three families to provide contact details for some families that they knew and thought would be available and willing to participate in the study. Once again, each of the suggestions were contacted by phone and three additional families were enrolled for the study. The researcher was keen to develop a sample that included a good mix of business as well as non-business families. Business families here are used as a proxy for entrepreneurial parents. Also, the researcher wanted to include nuclear families, as well as families that had more than one generation living together, in order to be able to get a comprehensive view and a sample that is representative of Indian families in general. In order to achieve this, the researcher sorted the list of suggestions that he received and contacted families keeping in mind that a balance between business and non-business families was maintained. Furthermore, the researcher attempted to ensure that the families chosen do not all belong to any specific community or caste to avoid any underlying deeper cultural issues, however as mentioned ahead one of the aspects that the researcher would like to improve and work further upon in the future is including families from a larger geographic area and different parts of India in order to account for any regional or demographic differences. An observation that was made by the researcher was that business families were usually more reluctant to provide access as compared to non-business families.

Five consecutive days were spent with each of the families to observe their daily routines, understand their family environment and to analyse the dynamics of the relationships that existed between all the members. The families were visited early in the morning depending on when they indicated their usual day starts and the researcher stayed in their homes with them, where they were observed till late in the evening. In some occasions, the researcher would accompany some of the individuals from families to their

work places and also at times to social events that the families attended. The researcher also interacted with the friends and colleagues of the families being observed in order to get an in depth understanding of the family and its functioning.

Out of the six families chosen, two had a family business and the remaining four had a professional/service background. During the process of identifying potential subjects for this study, the researcher attempted to ensure that there was a balance between the number of business and professional families selected. A perfect balance was hard to achieve. Even after several attempts the researcher was unable to recruit more business families to participate in this study, as they were found to be more reluctant than other families to have an outsider integrate closely with the family for a long period of time. Maintaining a balance between business and non-business families was done to warrant that the themes that are generated following the analysis of the data are common to both family types and hence would help in developing more generalizable hypothesis for testing quantitatively in the second study. The researcher considers families from a business background encompassing a more entrepreneurial mind-set as compared to families where members belong to a professional/service background. This study does not differentiate between family firms and families where parents are entrepreneurs. The categorization as a business family is based on having at least one parent involved in a business that they set up – this included family businesses as well. This was an important factor in this study as it would help to delineate the effect that exposure to a particular kind of familial environment has on the intentions of the children. During the period of data collection and observation, both sets of families were treated in the same manner to avoid any bias from the researcher. The background of the family was only taken into consideration during the analysis of the results. Additionally, three of the families had three generations living under the same roof. This was interesting as it allowed the researcher to get an idea of how individuals of different generations living in the same house maintain their relationship,

and what effect this has on the younger generation of the family. Also, it was interesting to see whether the views, opinions and attitudes held by the oldest members of the family affected the other individuals in the family. In each of the families studied, all the members living in the house were observed and interviewed, but the main objects of the study were the youngest generation of the family. The details of the families chosen have been listed in Table 4.1. The family members as defined in the table below, include all the individuals that were living under the same roof. This was important as these are the individuals that would be in regular contact with each other and the youngest generation would be exposed to the views and opinions held by all of them. Except in family 2, in none of the other families were the youngest generation (the main subjects of observation) married and living together. In family 6, the two older siblings were married and not living in the same house, as a result of this they were not considered a part of the study. The individuals that have been highlighted within each family were the main persons of investigation in the study. It was these particular individuals that the researcher had kept at the centre of his observation and used them as a point of reference to study the various relationships, rules, regulation and set up within the family. These individuals were decided upon following the first introductory meeting with all the family members, based on the interest in entrepreneurship that they expressed during conversations with the various members.

Serial No.	Number of members	Details of members	Location	Occupation
Family 1	5	Member 1 – Grandfather (87) Member 2 – Father (62) Member 3 – Mother (56) Member 4 – Son (31, M) Member 5 – Son (27, M)	South Delhi	Business Family
Family 2	9	Member 1 – Grandfather (83) Member 2 – Father (59) Member 3 – Mother (54) Member 4 – Son (32, M) Member 5 – Son (27, M) Member 6 – Uncle (64) Member 7 – Aunt (58) Member 8 – Son (36, M) Member 9 – Son (29, M)	South Delhi	Business Family
Family 3	4	Member 1 – Father (59) Member 2 – Mother (50) Member 3 – Son (31, M) Member 4 – Daughter (27, F)	West Delhi	Professional
Family 4	3	Member 1- Father (52) Member 2- Mother (50) Member 3– Son (19, M)	Gurgaon, NCR	Professional
Family 5	6	Member 1- Grandmother (80) Member 2 – Grandfather (89) Member 3- Father (58) Member 4- Mother (54) Member 5– Daughter (27, F) Member 6– Daughter (19, F)	South Delhi	Professional
Family 6	5	Member 1- Father (65) Member 2- Mother (60) Member 3– Son (29, M)	Gurgaon, NCR	Professional/ Entrepreneurial

Table 4.1: Demographics of Ethnography sample families

For each of the families that were observed, a double-entry journal was maintained as described above. Detailed notes for the 5-day observation period were written down. While throughout the study the role of the researcher was that of an observer, however since the researcher was present within the family for several days, the role occasionally involved active participation in daily events and activities. This formed an important part

of the research as it helped to get an intimate understanding of family dynamics and relationship amongst its members.

4.4.2 Interviewing

Observation often does not always provide sufficient information regarding the groups or cultures being studied and thus needs to be supplemented with other sources of research methods as well. Interviewing the members of the subject group is one such common method. Conducting interviews helps develop an in-depth understanding of the social norms, cultures and day-to-day activities that the ethnographer observes (Axinn and Pearce, 2006). In order to ensure that the interview yields productive results and provides the researcher the information that he is looking for, it is essential that the researcher always keeps his research question in mind while performing the interviews (Rafoth, 2001).

“The first step in getting someone to tell you something you are interested in hearing is to tell them exactly why you want to interview them...” (Rafoth, 2001, p. 83)

Therefore, it is important that both the interviewer and the interviewee have a clear idea regarding the purpose of the interview so that both can be satisfied with the amount of time and effort that goes into the process. While short interviews can often be conducted with the subjects during the time of observation, the researcher must allocate time to conduct long, in depth interviews with those that interest him (Spradley, 2016). It is important that the researcher allots sufficient time to arrange for meetings and interviews with the subject of interest. A good interviewer must always have a friendly, welcoming, and enthusiastic demeanour. This helps the interviewee to open-up to the researcher sooner and provide good quality and detailed information on the interview topic (Axinn and Pearce, 2006). Additionally, the researcher must always appear organised and well versed with background information about the interviewee in order to help maintain interest and

enthusiasm. Since every qualitative interview is like a probing conversation, it is important that the researcher has enough background knowledge regarding the subject so that he can carry on having a conversation with the interviewee until he has received all the information from them (Zemliansky, 2008).

A good strategy to follow while gathering information for ethnographic research is to develop open-ended questions for the interviewee. This allows the subject to speak for long stretches of time, rather than responding to questions with limited yes or no answers. Long conversational-style interviews add the richness and depth that is expected from ethnographic studies (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007). It is also considered acceptable to probe the subject further on questions that seem fascinating to the researcher. It is also often interesting to ask the subject to describe their feelings and thoughts associated with certain events rather than restrict them to only providing facts (Axinn and Pearce, 2006). Lastly, while it is always essential to keep the main purpose and aim of the interview in mind during the interview, the researcher must not prevent the subject from sometimes diverting from the topic. This can lead to unexpected but interesting insights into the topic (Zemliansky, 2008).

As mentioned above, in order to add more depth to the data gathered during observation period, interviews were conducted with the different members of each of the families under observation. During periods when there was limited activity within the household, the researcher would approach individual members of the family and ask for permission to speak with them. The aim was to make the individuals feel comfortable and get information in a more conversational manner, rather than like an interview. With this in mind, the researcher avoided using specific, structured questions but began the conversation by asking the members to tell them about their lives from their childhood to now. This provided the researcher an indication about the kind of socialization that person would have been exposed to. Also, it was interesting to note how individuals could provide

explanations for their likes, dislikes and decisions while talking retrospectively. Since the family members were aware about the researcher's interest in entrepreneurship, they would often themselves lead the conversation towards their opinions and impressions about entrepreneurship. Some individuals also shared their past experiences with entrepreneurship that were useful to the researcher. All the information was recorded in the same double-entry journal as the observations. If some information provided by the individuals helped in the clarification of an earlier observation made by the researcher, then it was rewritten in front of the observation to help with the analysis in the future. Also, if there were particular observations that the researcher had made, which he felt needed explanation, the researcher waited for an appropriate moment during the conversation and then asked the individual about the observation and sought clarification. This was one of the key objectives of the individual conversations, as it helped the researcher put some of the observations into context when the intent or meaning behind them were clarified by the respective family members. The researcher attempted to speak to all the members of the family, to ensure that maximum knowledge of each of them and their thought processes can be gained. Apart from the Uncles family in family 2, all members of each of the 6 other families were spoken too. The details of members interviewed are provided in Table 4.2. Interviews with some of the members lasted longer than with others, but in all cases the researcher allowed the individuals to continue talking till they themselves asked to be excused. The information that was noted down during these interviews were then combined along with the information from the observations. This combined information was used for the thematic analysis discussed ahead.

Serial No.	Number of members interviewed	Total number of family members	Details of members interviewed
Family 1	5	5	Member 1 – Grandfather (87) Member 2 – Father (62) Member 3 – Mother (56) Member 4 – Son (31, M) Member 5 – Son (27, M)
Family 2	5	9	Member 1 – Grandfather (83) Member 2 – Father (59) Member 3 – Mother (54) Member 4 – Son (32, M) Member 5 – Son (27, M)
Family 3	4	4	Member 1 – Father (59) Member 2 – Mother (50) Member 3 – Son (31, M) Member 4 – Daughter (27, F)
Family 4	3	3	Member 1- Father (52) Member 2- Mother (50) Member 3– Son (19, M)
Family 5	6	6	Member 1- Grandmother (80) Member 2 – Grandfather (89) Member 3- Father (58) Member 4- Mother (54) Member 5– Daughter (27, F) Member 6– Daughter (19, F)
Family 6	5	5	Member 1- Father (65) Member 2- Mother (60) Member 3– Son (29, M)

Table 4.2: Details of family members interviewed

Apart from conducting separate interviews with the family members, observations were also made when 2-3 individuals of the family were sitting together having a conversation. This helped to get a perspective on how opinions and views may have changed with time within the Indian family and also proved to be a window to visualise the power/hierarchical dynamics that exist within family systems.

As described above, there can be several methods that ethnographers use to gain perspective into their subject group and conduct their research. However, there is one aspect which is critical to every ethnographic study, irrespective of what research method

has been used, who the subject of the study is and what the aim/purpose of the study is, this is the process of writing field notes and keeping journals.

4.5 FIELD NOTES AND RESEARCH JOURNAL

Conducting an ethnographic study is not like conducting secondary research based on only books and articles. Ethnography is a very active form of primary research that often goes on for long periods of time and depends to a large extent on the observations and interpretations of the researcher. Therefore, this makes it critical for the researcher to constantly keep writing down his observations, and the thoughts and explanations associated with them so that they can be referred to throughout the span of the study (Emerson, Fretz and Shaw, 2011).

The field notes are an important source of information that the researcher can refer back to while assimilating all the data and information collected during the study in order to produce a descriptive account of the social phenomena or culture under investigation (Van Maanen, 2011). Ethnographers should always have a small notebook at hand, in which they can record the smallest of details that they witness. Researchers often choose to write down the events in short bullet points, and expand on them later in the day after some reflection and retrospection (Emerson, Fretz and Shaw, 2011). The purpose behind this is that momentary events that may not seem to be important or interesting at that point of time, upon reflection can impart essential information regarding the subject under study (Emerson, 1995; Hoey, 2014).

Maintaining a written account of the daily events, when re-visited, helps in discerning underlying patterns that can be missed during simple observation that are important to help the researcher identify the purpose of the research. This is one of the main reasons why ethnographic research is considered to be '*Emergent*' since the long periods of time spent in the field interacting and observing the subject help the researcher

to further develop and refine the research topic. The ethnographers rely to a large extent on their field notes to develop a preliminary understanding and interpretation of the subject group, and it is the field notes that eventually lead the ethnographer towards a conclusion. Therefore, such an open-ended approach towards research leads to the belief that *“Ethnographers never stop writing”* (Hoey, 2014).

Lastly, since Ethnography is an ‘interpretive’ science, it is never advisable to do the writing at the end of the long study period. However, it is essential to keep writing along with the observation process so that ideas can keep evolving and developing as the project proceeds (Denzin, 1997). Tentative results and conclusions should be written down and revisited regularly so that they can be refined further based on any new information obtained. An ethnographer is expected to have an intimate relationship with their field notes and must be in continuous dialogue with them. This eventually leads the ethnographer to develop an account that can make other people experience and encounter what the ethnographer went through himself, simply by reading the written account (Wolfinger, 2002).

4.6 SECONDARY RESEARCH

While primary research via interviews and observation are the central aspect of ethnographic study, it is not limited to these. Ethnographers commonly depend on a large amount of secondary research to support and further develop the theories and ideas they develop during primary research (Whitehead, 2005).

The data collected during primary ethnographic study provides in-depth, descriptive details about the cultures being investigated. However, these are usually only the opinions and observations of the researcher. In order to broaden the outlook of the study and provide perspectives other than that of the researcher, it is important to

supplement the primary data with secondary data on the same subject group (Alasuutari, Bickman, and Brannen, 2008).

The secondary research for this study involved studying the available literature on the role of family in career decisions and entrepreneurial intentions of the youth. An attempt was made to identify specific themes that arise from these sources and use them to guide the ethnographic studies. Also, having grown up in India, the researcher depended on an inherent knowledge and understanding of Indian culture to provide insights into the Indian family system and culture.

4.7 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH

METHODS

With any type of qualitative or quantitative research methods, it is essential that the reliability and the validity of the data and the method is maintained. Reliability refers to the reproducibility of the methods and results of any research. The main idea behind reliability is based on two aspects. Firstly, based on the procedures described, the study should be able to be repeated by other researchers wanting to replicate the original research (Rust and Cooil, 1994). This is usually referred to as external reliability. The second aspect is that the outcomes of the research and the interpretation of the results should be consistent if the research is repeated by others following the original procedures. This is known as internal reliability (Burns, 1994; Nurani, 2008).

While this is an effective mechanism for maintaining consistency and quality of research, it is usually difficult to uphold the two aspects of reliability in ethnographic research. Due to the highly subjective nature of ethnographic research and the fact that it takes place in natural settings, the accurate replication of the procedures is difficult. This problem can be partially overcome if the methodology is described in detail by the researcher so that it is easier for someone wanting to replicate it in the future. Additionally,

even the replication of the results and the consistency in interpretation is difficult. Since the results of an ethnographic study are based on the observations of the researcher and his impression of what they mean in a particular context, it is difficult for someone trying to reconstruct the study to have the same observations. Since the results are based primarily on the observations, this leads to variations in the findings (Nurani, 2008). In order to address this problem, a comparison of the descriptions of the ethnographies can be made and the variations within these descriptions can be identified which can be useful in resolving the disagreements and differences within the interpretations of the observations (Wiersma, 1986). To ensure the reliability of the data gathered in this study, the samples that have been chosen for the study and the conditions under which the observations were conducted have been clearly described. Also, all the observations, inferences and the secondary data that led to the development of those inferences have been described in detail ahead.

Moving on, apart from the consistency in methods and the interpretations of the results the next most important aspect is the validity of the conclusions that are drawn from the study (Creswell and Miller, 2003). Internal validity of research refers to the sufficiency of the research methods and the confidence with which the conclusion can be drawn based on the outcomes of the study. External validity refers to the generalisability of the results of the study across different groups (Neuman, 2003).

The most effective method to control for internal validity is by triangulation of data. The triangulation of data is conducted by using different sources of data and different methods of data collection. This helps to verify and validate the analysis of the data and to ensure that it is consistent with the hypothesis (Flick, 1992). From the perspective of ethnographies, this can be done by supplementing the data collected through observations by other methods such as interviews and other secondary data sources as well. External validity is often more difficult to maintain in ethnographic studies since these are specific

to certain regions or communities. However, the strength of the generalisability can be increased by conducting multi-site ethnographies. If the outcome of the study and the conclusions regarding the phenomena under investigation are similar across different sites, the external validity of the results is enhanced (Neuman, 2003).

To uphold the validity of my research, interviews were conducted with the participants of the ethnographic studies to supplement the observational data. Also, an attempt was made to support and justify all the findings by using reliable information from secondary sources such as previously conducted research on similar topics. To top this all, data triangulation was carried out by developing structured questionnaires based on the hypothesis of the ethnographic studies and the quantitative results from these will help to provide more valid and generalisable outcomes. Finally, the issue of maintaining external validity has been addressed by using six families for the ethnographic study. This will give the research a multi-site ethnography like perspective since the results will not be based on the observations of only a single case but will be compared between different samples.

4.8 LIMITATIONS OF ETHNOGRAPHIC STUDIES

Like any other research methodology, Ethnographic studies come with their own set of limitations. The most common limitation is that the participants of the study often project what they consider ideal behaviour when under observation (Dey, 2003). Instead of answering questions with the truth, the participants provide answers that they feel are socially acceptable and what they believe the researcher would want to hear. However, such limitations are restricted to the initial phase of the study when the study participants are still unfamiliar and unsure about the researcher. Burns (1994) recommends that the researcher must not readily accept the data and information collected during the initial stages of the study and use data triangulation to confirm the initial findings. Additionally, dealing with the participants in a non-threatening, open and causal manner helps to ease

the relationship between the researcher and the subject and therefore helps to get a more genuine and realistic response from the subject (Taylor, Bogdan and DeVault, 2015).

Since the aim of this study was to develop themes relating to the various roles that an individual's family can play in influencing their intentions, the study hoped to gather data from a variety of different families, so that the results can be used to develop a model that can be generalised to the entire context of Indian families. Although, ethnographies and similar qualitative techniques are not suitable for gathering data with the aim of generalisability, but by trying to select samples that are different from each other, some variability can be included in the data and this can be useful towards adding to the generalisability of the results. In this study, the researcher attempted to maintain some variability in the sample by including families from business as well as non-business backgrounds and joint as well as nuclear families. The researcher acknowledges that since all the families observed were from New Delhi, the data may be limited in terms of the variability and richness which could have been obtained by carrying out a pan-India study.

Secondly, as discussed earlier, the limitations relating to the low generalisability of the data can be addressed by trying to increase the external validity of the study by conducting a multi-site study, by studying families from different locations in India. If the results can be replicated in each of the sites of the study, the generalisability will be increased.

Additionally, increasing the number of observations or increasing the amount of time spent observing each of the subjects could also help to increase the external validity of the study.

4.9 CONCLUSION

The above chapter provided a detailed discussion on the method that has been used in this study for qualitative data collection, Ethnographies. The process of conducting ethnographies, gaining access to the samples, the methods used for collecting and analysing data were described. The samples that were chosen for this use in this study were described as well. Finally, the issues surrounding the reliability and validity of data in qualitative studies, and how these have been upheld in this study were discussed along with a discussion on the limitations surrounding ethnographic research methods. The following chapter will discuss the results that were obtained by following the methods described in this chapter.

CHAPTER 5

QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the process that was used for the analysis for the qualitative data generated following the ethnographies. The results of the data analysis will be presented and this will then be used to develop suggest the impact that various factors related to family impact intentions of the youth. These results form the basis of the hypotheses that will be tested following quantitative techniques. Finally, the results will be discussed in relation to existing knowledge and literature on the role of family in entrepreneurial intentions.

5.2 THE PROCESS OF DATA ANALYSIS

This section details the qualitative data analysis process and includes an analysis of the data obtained from the ethnographic studies.

5.2.1 Thematic Data Analysis

As opposed to quantitative data, there are no clear set of rules that guide the process of qualitative data analysis. Also, of the different methods followed for data analysis there is no single method that is considered better than the other (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Babbie, 2012). It is suggested that the researcher should let the data and the purpose of the research dictate what method would be most suited for analysis (Wolcott, 2005). Following 30 days of field study, the researcher collected a total of 540 pages of information on the 6 families. Since the purpose of this research was initially exploratory and descriptive, and it hoped to identify certain underlying themes within family dynamics that can explain the role played by family in developing entrepreneurial intentions, it was

decided to conduct a ‘thematic analysis’ of the data collected. Using this style of analysis will help in developing certain ‘themes’ which can be analysed further by quantitative studies. In order to achieve this, there were three independent processes that were carried out: (a) Summarising (Condensation) of the data, (b) Categorisation (Grouping) of the data and (c) Structuring (Ordering) of the data.

Summarising Data

Summarising the data refers to converting large amounts of data texts, which are obtained from either interviews or even from the researcher’s own notes after observations, into shorter versions while still keeping the key points and sense of the information intact. It involves condensing long sentences and sometimes even paragraphs into a few words that convey the exact meaning of the information to the researcher (Kvale, 1983).

The main aim behind this process is to help the researcher swiftly sort through large amounts of information and identify the main themes that emerge from each interview or observation (LeCompte and Schensul, 1999). Summarising the data in shorter versions also helps in the identification of relationships between the different factors, which can be confirmed by detailed analysis later. Short and summarised versions should be prepared for each of the interviews and observational studies conducted, in order to make comparisons between all the respondents more convenient and quicker for the researcher to identify common themes (Robson, 2002).

The notes that were taken down during the daily visits to each of the ethnography subjects were written into detailed reports during the duration of the study. Once the study period had been completed, all the detailed notes from each of the six families were ‘summarised’ into shorter, more precise notes that highlighted the key factors and details that stood out in each family. This process usually went through more than one round of summarising. The large amounts of data that was generated during the initial period of

observation was first arranged and organized into a logical and systematic report about the family. This was around 10-15 pages long on average and was a compilation of all the notes, interviews and observations noted by the researcher. An example from such an initial summary for family 5 is provided in Appendix 5(A). This was then further summarised into a shorter version highlighting some key relationships and overall themes that emerged in that particular observation (Example continued in Appendix 5(B)). This process was carried out for each of the 6 families.

Categorising Data

Once the data has been summarised, the next stage of data analysis involves grouping similar pieces of data under specific categories. For this, it is foremost essential to develop the categories that can be applied to the data. These categories are usually derived from either detailed literature review which points out important themes within the field of research or can also be derived from the theoretical framework of the study which denotes the various topics on which data or information is sought. The categories that are developed for the data set are dependent on the objectives and the purpose of the research. A strategy suggested by Strauss and Corbin (2008) is to name categories based on terms that appear often in the existing theories and literature as well as terms that may be used commonly by participants. For example, it was noticed in all of the participating families there was a lot of relevance on the presence/absence of ‘support’ within the family. The younger generation often pointed out issues that they would get support from their family from and the parents/grandparents were also keen to highlight issues they would ‘support and encourage’ and certain things that they might not. This led to the generation of one theme as support and encouragement from the family. The aim of developing categories and assigning data to them is so that trends and patterns between large amounts of data can be recognised and assessed easily. Most of the themes and sub-

codes that were used in the analysis of this ethnographic study were based on those highlighted in the literature previously. Themes such as Support and Encouragement, Socialization and Experience and Experimentation have ample evidence in the literature linking them to entrepreneurial intentions, as highlighted in the literature review chapter. With these idea in mind, the data that was collected was sorted to see whether it fit under these existing themes. Certain unique observations such as the importance of image, were categorised into new themes.

All the families that were observed showed trends that could be clearly ordered under these three categories, with encouragement and support from parents being one of the most commonly discussed factor. Apart from these three categories identified from the literature, analysing the summarised data further lead to the identification of two more themes that seemed to be common in most of the families observed. This was firstly, the need to conform to a social image and secondly the structure of the family. Based on the data that was summarised from each of the 6 families, categories were created for themes that were found to occur consistently in each of the families, albeit in varying degrees. The aim here was not to analyse the relationships, but only to be able to identify themes/factors that can be used later on to develop relationships.

Ordering Data

After summarising the data into relevant chunks of information and deciding on categories or labels to divide the information into, the final stage involves organising all the data under relevant categories (Yin, 2003). This process can be potentially tedious and time-consuming but is the most important step towards recognising emergent themes and relationships from the large quantities of qualitative data. This logical and structured rearrangement of data is what is commonly referred to as data analysis (Wolcott, 2005).

This stage of ordering and organising the data also serves as an important check point for the various categories that were derived in the previous stage. While ordering the data, it may emerge that some categories are too broad and hence attracting too much information. This may result in the researcher deciding to further sub-divide the category. Alternatively, it can also be possible that two or more categories are very similar in the type of data they attract, hence making analysis easier by combining them together. It can also lead to the generation of new categories for data that might not fall under any of the previously defined categories (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

In the analysis of the data gathered during the ethnographies, the summarised data was ordered under each of the five categories. This helped in the identification of certain relationships between family and the development of entrepreneurial intentions that, as discussed ahead, will form the basis of the quantitative study.

This process was carried out for each of the 6 families. Following this, the analysed data from the 6 families was combined and a set of common themes was developed – this was relatively easier as there was a substantial amount of overlap between the themes identified in each of the families. This led to the development of themes that were common in all the families, and the data from each of the families was also systematically categorised into the respective themes.

5.2.2. Developing specific hypothesis

The aim of organising and categorising data is so that relevant patterns and themes can become apparent to the researcher. The themes are used to develop research hypothesis that can be used to provide empirical support to the findings of the studies. The relationships that emerge out of such an organised analysis of qualitative data can then be further tested by quantitative methods, such as those described in the next chapter.

For each of the families that were observed, a double-entry journal was maintained where in detailed notes were written for the entire observation period. Additionally, explanations and reasoning regarding those observations were also noted. Apart from observation, some open-ended interviews were conducted in a conversational style in order to add depth to, and supplement the data collected by observation. These conversations with family members helped to generate a better and more detailed understanding of the observations and therefore assisted in providing a more coherent explanation of the research findings (Parthasarathy, 2008; Zemliansky, 2008). The outcomes of the interviews were recorded in the double-entry journal along with other observations and their inferences.

Based on this analysis, the next section provides brief excerpts from the ethnographies of the six families, followed by a discussion on the observations.

5.3 RESULTS

During the course of this study, up to five days were spent with each of the six families chosen for ethnographic analysis. The observation period began from the morning and extended through till the evening on each of the days with each of the families. An attempt was made to interact with as many members of the family as possible, engage in their day-to-day conversations and activities, and if possible accompany them to their social events and work places, to order to get a broad perspective on the various aspects of their family structure, values and beliefs. The key findings and highlights from each of the families will be discussed briefly and then some propositions elaborating on the role of family in affecting entrepreneurial intentions will be suggested.

Family 1

The first family that was studied for the ethnographic analysis was a medium sized business family from New Delhi (Refer to table 4.1, page 112). The family business had been started by the grandfather and now was being run by his three sons. The youngest son, whose family was being studied for this analysis was involved in the business but was unhappy with the distribution of power, the hierarchical system, and the lack of new ideas and innovation in the family business. The two youngest grand-sons did not show any inclination to be a part of the family business either and had taken up professional careers, although their extended family wanted them to join the business. The grandsons from this family seemed to be influenced mostly by the opinions held by their parents and were opposed to the idea of any kind of business/entrepreneurship. The mood in the house was usually tense due to constant quarrels over the business. The family was financially strained as well as the business had not been performing well. Another interesting observation was that, in the family of the other two brothers, that was involved in the business, the women were not working and held more traditional house-keeping roles. While, the wife of the youngest son, whose family was the main family being observed, was working as a school teacher and did not comply with the traditional roles as her counterparts.

Family 2

The second family that was chosen for analysis was a large business family living in an ancestral family home in New Delhi (Refer to table 4.1, page 112). There were strict rules and regulations to be followed in the house and a strong hierarchical system was present. All of the women in the house, although educated, were neither working nor were they a part of the family business but rather maintained traditional house-keeping roles. The decisions were taken by the senior-most member of the house and there was not much

autonomy given to the younger generation. There was no support or encouragement shown towards starting new business ventures or new ideas since previously other members had struggled and failed several times before setting up the current business. However, new ideas were encouraged as long as they were within the realms of the current business. The younger generation showed strong intentions towards having entrepreneurial career and were keen on starting a business separate from that established by the family.

Family 3

The third family was a small, middle-class professional family from New Delhi (Refer to table 4.1, page 112). Strong hierarchical system existed in the house, with the father at the head of the family. The mother was not working, and maintained a traditional housekeeping role. The father insisted on professional careers for both the children, though the older son (who was the main subject of observation) was highly entrepreneurially inclined. While keen on entrepreneurial careers, the son had so far no intentions of starting an entrepreneurial venture. There was no discussion on any business ideas or ventures in the family. The father maintained a very formal, almost strained relationship with the children. The family did not have many friends or relatives in entrepreneurial careers and the parents were keen to ensure that their children were not the ones to break this culture. In fact, the parents went to the extent of trying to ensure that the friends of their children did not include any with entrepreneurial ambitions and encouraged them to interact only with people of backgrounds and ideals similar to theirs.

Family 4

The fourth family was a nuclear and very close knit middle class service family living in Gurgaon, which is considered to be a newly developed extension to New Delhi (Refer to table 4.1, page 112). Parents were working at senior positions in multinational

corporations. Their only child was a highly innovative and creative science student, who was very keen to start his own technology venture. Parents were extremely supportive and encouraging discussions were often held at home. The child was provided with moral, psychological and financial support from the parents to follow his passion. Interestingly, the family and their close friends had no past experience with entrepreneurship but were keen to support their child.

Family 5

The next family was a very close-knit, joint family, from New Delhi (Refer to table 4.1, page 112). The family was highly academically inclined with several members holding PhD degrees and working in an academic career. The family was very supportive of both their daughters' ambitions, but were not very keen on entrepreneurial career options which were often openly discouraged. The social circle of the family encompassed majorly of academics who were clearly averse to the idea of starting a business. The grandfather had faced very bad experiences in his childhood due to the business-owned by his father. Both children did not show any inclination towards having an entrepreneurial career.

Family 6

The final family that was observed was another middle-class professional family, from Gurgaon (Refer to table 4.1, page 112). The father was a retired senior-level government officer while the mother had a traditional house-keeping role. Parents were very keen on strong academic backgrounds but were not very interfering when it came to career choices. The two older siblings were married and not living in the same house. They visited often, and even agreed to be interviewed for this study. They were both employed in multinational companies, and were psychologically as well as financially supporting

their youngest sibling (who was the main subject of observation) who had started his own venture. The family did not have any relatives or friends involved in entrepreneurship and the children had not been previously exposed to entrepreneurial career options.

5.3.1. Support and Encouragement from family towards starting a business and new ideas

It was noticed that although there were several similarities in the families, the attitude of parents, and the support offered by them to the youth towards starting a business varied to quite an extent within the six families. Out of the 6 families, two of them Family 4 and 5, showed full support to their children following a career of their choice. The atmosphere and environment in Family 4 was very encouraging and positive. The son (a Physics student) showed a strong inclination towards new technological ideas and innovations. The family was very supportive towards this passion of his, that he was keen to convert into a full time occupation. His thoughts and plans were often the centre of several family discussions, and the parents were actively involved encouraging his ideas, and often also contributing to them. Although, the atmosphere in family 5 was similar to that of family 4, with extremely supportive and encouraging parents, but the encouragement was limited and focussed to academics and obtaining stable careers. This was somewhat similar to the situation in Family 6. The family provided support to each of their three children, but the importance was placed on education. Once, the children had achieved a level of qualification that was satisfactory for the parents, they were usually free to follow a career of their choice. This family was particularly interesting, as the youngest son (who was the main subject of observation) received additional support and encouragement from his older siblings. All the three siblings were highly educated, just like their parents wanted, but the youngest son on receiving extra support from his older siblings, had left a lucrative career in a big consultancy firm to start his own IT-company.

The other 3 families that were observed, showed lack of support and encouragement towards the views and opinions of their children. The hierarchical structure of family 2 lead to a lack of support to individuals trying to do anything outside their existing family business. There was no encouragement provided to individuals with new ideas. There was a fear of failure that was instilled in the minds of the older generation which prevented them from supporting and encouraging the youth.

*“If it doesn't work, the consequences will be severe and will spoil the family image”
-(Oldest Uncle).*

Also, this lack of support and encouragement was evident not just towards the children, but towards the women in the house as well. Most of the women were educated to a graduate-level, but their opinions and ideas were not valued and encouraged. The situation in family 1 was interesting, as there was a lot of family 'pressure' towards joining family business from the extended family. There was no support or encouragement provided to anyone who would think of doing anything apart from the family business. The family business was stagnant, but the extended family that were running the business were unwilling to change or take any risks. This negative atmosphere in the family, influenced the younger generation and created a negative mind-set towards business and entrepreneurship in general. Finally, the last family, family 3, was found to be quite extreme as it provided no support and encouragement at all towards entrepreneurial ideas or careers. The stress was always on education and reliable professional careers.

“Our friend's will think that he [son] didn't get a job so that is why he started his own business” – (Mother, Family 3).

The environment was rather stifling. Similar to family 2, no support was shown to the mother in this family, who was a painter and had initially wanted to pursue a career in the arts.

The strength of familial ties and relationships between members was also found to vary greatly from one family to another, and it impacted how the younger generation perceived the support that was provided to them. The presence of strong family ties and a close-knit family structure such as that seen in Family 2 and 3, prevented the children going against the wishes of the family, and were ‘forced’ to conform to their views. However, the strong ties and closeness in Family 4 and 5, added to the support and encouragement that was provided to the children and gave them the ability to openly discuss their views with the entire family. Family 1 and 6 did not exhibit any strong ties, and in both cases it was seen that the children had chosen to go against what was considered the norm within the family.

*“They were never totally involved in my life. So even though they were not fully happy with my decision to leave my job and start my own firm, it didn't matter too much to me”
-(Youngest son, family 6).*

Details for support and encouragement in each family mentioned in Table 5.1

	<i>Presence of parental support to start own business</i>	<i>Presence of encouragement towards new ideas, new ventures, trying "something new"</i>	<i>Strength of familial ties and relationship between members</i>	<i>Ability to provide financial support</i>
Family 1	Yes, 'pressure' towards joining family business. But no support towards own business ventures	Lack of new and interesting ideas within family business. Traditional business family not willing to take risks, change strategy, or try new ideas.	Family ties weak. Constant fights and quarrels with extended family members involved in business. Children not happy with situation and hence not part of family business	Not very high. Business not doing very well.
Family 2	Lack of support to anyone trying to do business outside the realms of already existing family business. Some support shown to youngest son, who wants to add a new dimension to existing business	Lack of encouragement to try something new. <i>"if it doesn't work, the consequences will be severe and will spoil the family image."</i> - <i>Oldest Uncle</i> . Even though the women in the house were educated and had experience with running business, their opinions and ideas were not encouraged.	Very close knit family with a highly structured, hierarchical structure. High level of interdependence between family members, and decisions taken after mutual consultation	Very high. Extremely wealthy family, but all financial decisions are taken after discussion with all male members.
Family 3	No support at all. Importance given only to education and reliable professional career options. <i>"Our friend's will think that he [son] didn't get a job so that is why he started his own business"</i> - <i>Mother</i>	No encouragement to try new ideas or ventures. Mother was a painter, wanted to be interior decorator but not encouraged by husband to work	Close knit family, with hierarchical structure. Father has overpowering and controlling nature. All decisions must be approved by him	Not very high, mother not working. Father worked very hard to provide for family.
Family 4	Yes, full support provided to the child to follow any career of choice	Very encouraging and positive family environment. Son (Physics student) very keen on new technological innovations. Several family discussions on son's thoughts, plans and ideas with parents contributing and encouraging	Very strong family ties.	Yes, mother and father working in senior corporate positions. Have saved up money to provide for son's future. <i>"The money is his, either for his education or for when he wants to start a business"</i> - <i>Father</i>
Family 5	Parental support present towards any decision or ambition of children	Not very highly encouraged. Focus on academics and stable careers.	Strong family ties. Interdependence important for family members. Decisions taken after consultation, not just with grandparents or parents, but involve children in the discussions too.	Yes, can provide financial support if needed. But not openly encouraged. <i>"I would rather put all that money towards a higher and better degree"</i> - <i>Father</i>
Family 6	Presence of parental support, but high focus and importance on education.	Encouragement provided by parents to follow their dream, but no direct mention of entrepreneurship. Two older siblings very supportive and encouraging towards youngest sibling, who has started his own IT company.	Not very strong family ties. <i>"They were never totally involved in my life. So even though they were not fully happy with my decision to leave my job and start my own firm, it didn't matter too much to me"</i> - <i>Youngest son</i>	Father retired, mother never worked. Parents could not provide support to first two off-springs. Youngest son now supported financially by older siblings.

Table 5.1: Support and Encouragement towards entrepreneurship

5.3.2 Effect of past experience relating to entrepreneurship – The role of Socialisation

With respect to the presence of past experiences relating to entrepreneurship, the sample had a good mix of families with and without experience. Family 4 and 6 had no past experience relating to entrepreneurship or prior business ownership experience. In contrast, the remaining four families (1, 2, 3 and 5) mentioned that they had negative experiences and memories of prior entrepreneurial activities undertaken by them or other individuals in the family. Family 1 had been facing financial, as well as family related problems for several years. As a result of this, the children grew up in the middle of a strained environment and hence had negative associations in relation to entrepreneurship.

“The atmosphere at home was also so tense, and they always talked only about work. I didn't want to live that life” -(Oldest son, family 1).

Similarly, in family 2 the grandfather had reported that he had struggled for several years to set-up his business before he eventually succeeded. He had faced it passed it on to his sons, who had looked after it well, but they have made no effort to diversify. When someone in the family did try to try something new, like the oldest grandson, they failed miserably. As a result of this, there was complete lack of support for any new idea.

“Our business networks are now quite sensitive to the idea of diversification. Any more experimentation will ruin our image in the market” -(Grandfather, family 2).

Family 3 had experienced failure in entrepreneurship as well. The father in family 3, had seen his older brother start a business, which had failed.

“After seeing what my brother's went through, and what they put our entire family through, I could not make myself give up a secure, well-paying jobs and risk it all on a business.” -(Father, family 3).

The grandfather in family 5 had bad childhood experiences growing up in large family business that collapsed. He often discussed negative anecdotes of experiences with family.

“He saw the worst of times, but he was such a strong individual that he could survive it, I doubt I would be able to come out of something like that” -(Younger granddaughter, family 5).

Therefore, the families that were currently in professional careers were strongly opposed to their youth following entrepreneurial paths as a result of these negative experiences. The business families were slightly more flexible, as they were not out-rightly opposed to entrepreneurship, but they were limited in providing support only as long as it was related to the existing family business. In the sample that was observed, in 4 out of the 6 families, the younger generation was following career paths that were very similar to those followed by their parents. The only two exceptions were Family 1, where although the family was a business family, the negativity surrounding the business had driven both the sons to get jobs outside the family. Secondly, in Family 6 while the parents and older siblings had non-entrepreneurial jobs, the youngest son was in the process of establishing an IT start-up firm with support from his older siblings.

Additionally, apart from the direct effects of the family, the social circle of the families reinforced some of their views and beliefs. The four professional families in the sample, had a social circle that was very similar to theirs in terms of careers, and had a very limited number of friends in business related fields. Similarly, the social circle of the two business families also consisted mostly of individuals from other business families that have a social structure similar to theirs. Table 5.2 reports the effect of socialisation.

	Entrepreneurial family vs Professional family	Views and opinions relating to entrepreneurship	Presence of entrepreneurs/ business owners in close or extended family (Social Capital)
Family 1	Parents entrepreneurs. But older son engineer and younger son finance consultant	Opinions not very positive, but since business was set up by the grandfather, it had to be looked after. Nobody was very keen on the business, but is being carried on due to family compulsion	Yes, extended family involved in same family business
Family 2	Entrepreneurial family, with large family business. Started by grandfather and now looked after by his two sons, and grandchildren.	Overall, positive but only limited and restricted to their current business	Yes, most friends and social circle made up of business owner.
Family 3	Professional family. Father, senior manager in Government Organisation	Highly negative. No discussion on entrepreneurial ambitions of oldest son. Entrepreneurship not considered “good enough” in family and friend circle	Not many business owners or entrepreneurs as friends.
Family 4	Professional family	Stress on education, but parents open to idea of entrepreneurship. Want to keep son happy, and show trust in his vision	Not many business owners or entrepreneurs as friends.
Family 5	Professional family (Mostly academics)	Not considered a very respectable career. Most friends and social circle is made up of academics, like the mother and grandfather.	No entrepreneur or business owner in social circle or family
Family 6	Professional family.	Not much interference of family in the lives of the children. Freedom given for most decisions. Entrepreneurship not considered best career option	Social circle of parents is non-entrepreneurial.

Table 5.2: The effect of Socialisation

5.3.3 Youth Experience and Experimentation

One of the themes that was common across each of the six families was that most of the younger individuals that were being observed did not have any experience relating to entrepreneurship, either within or outside the family. Family 2 was the only family where the younger individuals had been involved in entrepreneurial activities of the family, as the sons often accompanied their fathers to work. From a young age, the sons had been trained about the nitty gritty and details of the family business, and hence were the only ones in the sample to exhibit any experience in entrepreneurship. In Family 1, although it was a joint family, the 2 sons of the youngest brother had been kept away from the family business and did not show any interest or inclination towards the business. In contrast, although there was no predisposition to entrepreneurship in Family 6 and none of the members had any experience with entrepreneurship, the youngest son was strongly inclined towards starting his own venture. This was similar to what was seen in Family 4, while despite the lack of any experience in entrepreneurship, the son showed strong inclinations towards entrepreneurial careers. However, he was driven by the passion towards his subject and the support of his parents.

In terms of the presence of role models, the youngest son in Family 6 did not indicate the presence of any role models within the family. In fact, the negative impression set by their respective families, the children in Family 1 and 2, seemed to have been put-off entrepreneurship. Although they had great respect for their family, this did not convert into a professional admiration. In Family 5, the 2 daughters very strongly influenced by their grandfather and saw him as their role model. His dislike for entrepreneurship did have an impact on their perception of entrepreneurship as well.

Table 5.3 highlights some findings for the role of experience and experimentation.

	<i>Presence of direct entrepreneurial experience</i>	<i>Presence of strong role models within the family</i>
Family 1	Both sons have never been interested in business and did not participate in business activities	Lack of role models.
Family 2	Yes, all male members have been involved in the family business, but out of compulsion not choice. No scope or support for experimentation with new ideas.	Grandfather has a lot of respect in the house, but the younger generation feels his times were different and there is need to try new things
Family 3	No personal experience with entrepreneurial careers.	No entrepreneurial role models within family or social group.
Family 4	No personal experience with entrepreneurial career. Son often attends networking events, talks and seminars by entrepreneurs	No entrepreneurial role models within family.
Family 5	No experience with entrepreneurial careers	Grandfather is very strong role model in children's lives, and is strongly opposed to entrepreneurship. No entrepreneurial role model
Family 6	No direct experience of anyone with entrepreneurship.	No entrepreneurial role models within family

Table 5.3: Role of experience and experimentation

5.3.4 Need to conform to a society and the image of the family

Once again, the sample showed a good mix in terms of the expectations that each family had regarding their image in society. Similar to the pattern seen in support and encouragement offered by the families to their young members, Family 1, 2 and 3 showed a higher stress on conforming to the needs and views of the society they belonged too and had a greater need to uphold the image of their family. Both Family 1 and 2 were concerned that decisions taken by their children will impact the way their family business is viewed in the market, and can have negative consequences especially if the children chose not to enter the family business. The pressure to conform to the social image was doubled due to the pressures within the family in Family 1 and 2. There was a fear of losing the wealth that had been accumulated by their previous generations, which would eventually effect the image of the family in their business circles. The parents in Family 3 on the other hand

believed that their son following an entrepreneurial career would indicate that his professional life and career were not going well, which is why he had decided to go down the route of entrepreneurship. In fact, the father in family 3 was only interested in portraying a highly successful image of his children to his social circle, and would not accept them doing anything that could harm this image that he wanted to show.

Contrary to this, Family 4, 5 and 6 were slightly more accepting of the views and opinions of their members and the need to stick to a fixed image was not as strongly imposed on the younger generation. Interestingly, despite Family 5 being highly supportive of their children, there were several instances when they pointed out that their social circle consisted mostly of academics and individuals belonging to a certain type of career, and it would impact their image slightly if their children went against this.

“Everyone will be so surprised if they heard that my daughter wanted to start a business. That’s quite uncommon in our circle.”- (Mother, Family 5).

Family 4 and 6 did not show that they were influenced by what their social circle would think about their children and their career decisions. This worked in favour of the children in both these families, who did not face the pressure of trying to appease the society that they belonged to. Table 5.4 illustrates the impact of image in each of the families.

	<i>Presence of strong value system, rules and regulations within family</i>	<i>Need to conform with social image</i>
Family 1	Strong hierarchical system present in house. Strict rules and regulations present for all members	High. Family business was being carried on only to maintain the 'image' and 'reputation' of the family even though all members were unhappy with it.
Family 2	Very strong hierarchical system with strict rules for all members. All decisions taken by Grandfather and oldest son.	Very high. Famous and very wealthy business family. All decisions taken based on their impact of the 'image' of the company.
Family 3	No rules and regulations within family. But all decisions based on father's choice and opinions.	Very high. Opinions of friends and society very important for father. Keen on portraying a highly successful image to social circle.
Family 4	No strict rules within the family. Decisions are taken together. No hierarchy seen within family. <i>"Decisions taken within the family affect all the members equally so they must be taken with everyone's approval" - Mother</i>	No. Family focused on providing the child with whatever he wants and not affected by societal views and opinions. Social circle was very diverse
Family 5	No strict rules and regulations within the family. All decisions taken with the consent of all members. Lot of 'family discussions' and 'family conversations' to keep everyone involved in daily affairs.	High. Social circle consisted of individuals from similar background that had expectations from the family, and parents were keen that the 'image' was maintained and expectations met. <i>"Everyone will be so surprised if they heard that my daughter wanted to start a business. That's quite uncommon in our circle." - Mother</i>
Family 6	No strong hierarchy, rules or regulations in the house. Even though family looked quite traditional in its outlook and structure, they were willing to learn, experience and experiment with new ideas.	No. Parents as well as the three siblings were very indifferent towards views and opinions of others.

Table 5.4: Need to conform to social image

5.3.5 Structure of the family and additional support

Finally, the last theme that was found on analysing the ethnographic data was the structure of the family, in terms of the number of siblings and the role held by the women within the family. In most of the families, except family 2, none of the younger generation that were being observed were married. Hence, the role of women here refers predominantly to the role of the mothers within the family. In 4 out of the 6 families that were observed, the role held by the female members of the family was traditional. In family 2 and 3, despite the women being educated there was no importance given to their views and opinions. In family 1, although the mother was working to financial support the family, her overall position and role in the family was predominantly a traditional house-keeping role. In Family 4 and 5, the women held strong positions within the family, which was found to be transmitted to the children as well who were confident and independent. Family 6, was similar to the first three, as the mother was not working and traditional but the overall weak family ties led to limited influence of the parents on the children. The presence of working mothers was thought to be important not just in shaping the personalities of the children, but also from the perspective of an added financial support that could help children if they wanted to start an entrepreneurial venture. In addition to this, it was interesting to note that in Family 6, the presence of older siblings that were supportive, not just psychologically, but also financially, was one of the key reasons behind the youngest son being able to start his own venture. Table 5.5 highlights some of the key findings.

	<i>Presence of working mother/siblings</i>	<i>Role of women in the house</i>
Family 1	Yes, mother was a primary school teacher and both children were working.	Traditional role held by women. Important financial decisions taken by male members.
Family 2	Women not working. All siblings involved in family business.	Highly traditional role held by women. No say in family business. <i>“Even though I have a MBA degree, I am not allowed to participate or provide any input on the business” – Daughter-in-law</i>
Family 3	Mother not working. Both siblings working in multinational corporations.	Role of mother was highly traditional and mostly involved house-hold duties. Daughter was highly educated and working. No role of daughter in family discussions and decisions.
Family 4	Mother working professional	No traditional role of the mother. Father contributes equally towards house-hold duties.
Family 5	Mother working. Both siblings studying.	No traditional role of women. Male and female members contributed equally to the running of the house.
Family 6	Mother not working. 2 older siblings working in multinational corporations. Youngest sibling entrepreneur.	Mother held a traditional role in the house. Father contributed towards daily chores.

Table 5.5: Role of family support structure

5.3.6 Attitude towards entrepreneurship held by the young individuals within the family

In addition to studying the different ways in which the family could have an influence on the youngest members of the group, the characteristics of these young individuals were also observed, with the aim of attempting to link the effect of the family to the antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions. As discussed previously, attitude towards a behaviour is defined as the extent to which an individual considers the behaviour desirable. It was noticed that in only two out of the six families observed, did the subject being observed have a negative attitude towards entrepreneurial behaviours. In family 1, both the sons had been exposed to a lot of friction between their family and extended

family members due to the family business. Their father had, as a result of this, decided not to be part of the family business but instead work separately. Even though there was moderate level of socialisation that the subject had been exposed to due to be surrounded by entrepreneurial individuals, the lack of support and encouragement from the parents, the lack of any experience and the need to conform to the image that the father had developed – led to the subject developing a rather negative attitude towards entrepreneurship.

“You have to be quite selfish if you want to be successful in business, I don’t think it is something that goes well with family life” (Younger son, Family 1).

Interestingly, even though the parents in family 5 were very supportive and encouraging towards their children and claimed to support them in any decisions that they took, it was evident that they were not keen on entrepreneurial careers. The two daughters had not been exposed to any entrepreneurial behaviours and there was a strong need for them to fit in with the ‘academic’ image that was associated with the entire family. Additionally, the grandfather who was an extremely strong influence and role model for both the children, was staunchly against entrepreneurship due to the negative experience he had faced growing up in a large business family. This led to the development of a negative attitude towards entrepreneurship in the subject. Interestingly, family 4 and 5 were found to be relatively similar to each other, with respect to the absence of any entrepreneurial background or experience, high level of family support and even ability to provide financial support to the young individuals – however the subject in family 4 showed a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship as opposed to the attitude shown by the subject in family 5. The only difference was that there was no pressure to conform to the image of the family in family 4, as there was in family 5.

“I would love to have my own tech-innovations based company. It will be so much more exciting than working robotically for someone else’s company” – (Son, Family 4).

One exception to most of the observations was the subject in family 3. Despite the lack of any support, any experience or socialisation, and taking into consideration the strong need to conform to the image of the family, the son still showed a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship. Having grown up under some financial pressures within the family, the son saw entrepreneurship as a mechanism to achieve financial well-being, and hence had a positive attitude towards it. In family 2, as a result of the socialisation of growing up in a large family business, being exposed to entrepreneurship and having past work experience through the family business, the subject of the observation had a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship. Although, the family were not supportive towards the young individuals diversifying in ventures that were not related to the family, the young individuals still showed a positive attitude. Finally, the relationships within family 6 were found to be not as strong as seen in some of the other families. The parents were very non-interfering in the lives of their children and open and supportive towards most of the decisions. The three siblings shared a very close bond with each other – and the youngest son, who was the main subject was observation highlighted that the support and encouragement that was offered by his siblings was one of the main reasons he had chosen to follow an entrepreneurial career and demonstrated a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship.

5.3.7 Perceived Behavioural Control towards entrepreneurship held by the young individuals within the family

In addition to the desirability, the feasibility towards a particular behaviour is also of key importance as proposed by Ajzen (1991). In the observations made in each of the families, it was interesting to note that in most cases the perceived control that the subjects demonstrated towards entrepreneurial behaviour was in line with their desirability towards the behaviour as well, except in the case of the subject in family 3. As pointed out in the

previous section, the positive attitude of the son was surprising, considering the lack of any support from the family. However, it was interesting to note that although the subject had a positive attitude, his perceived control towards the behaviour was negative. The lack of support and socialisation from the family, had influenced the manner in which he perceived his ability to start an entrepreneurial venture.

“I don’t know anyone you can help me if I decide to start my own business. Plus without any financial back-up, I don’t think it will be a good idea to leave my job at this point.” – (Son, Family 3).

Furthermore, in family 1 and 5 similar to the impact on attitude, the negative mindset towards entrepreneurial had effected the extent to which the younger generation viewed the feasibility of entrepreneurial ventures.

“It’s not possible to run a business, without causing trouble with your family and friends. It’s really not worth it.” - (Younger Son, Family 1).

The daughters in family 5 had demonstrated great respect and awe towards their grandfather and often mentioned that he was strong enough to survive the troubles his family business brought upon him, but they would probably have crumpled under the pressure. It was evident that the negative anecdotes that were discussed by their grandfather had portrayed entrepreneurship to be a difficult path to follow, and led them to doubt their abilities to succeed in such an environment.

The positive PBC in the subject of family 2 was directly linked to the long standing experience of the family in entrepreneurial ventures and the financial and social capital that was available to all the individuals within the family.

“I am sure I will be able to succeed in any venture that I start, I have friends and contacts working in every type of business that you can think of” – (Son, Family 2).

The belief in the presence of moral as well as financial support provided by their family, led to a positive PBC in the subjects of both family 4 and 6. In both these families,

even though they did not have any past experience with entrepreneurship and there was no socialisation that the subjects had been exposed to either, the support and encouragement that was meted out to them by the family was enough to make them believe in their abilities to start an entrepreneurial venture.

“I think I am more suited for working in an open, creative field. I feel restricted working in structured set-ups. Even my parents think I will do much better working for myself”- (Youngest son, Family 6).

5.3.8 Subjective norms towards entrepreneurship held by the family of the young individual

The results of the analysis of the subjective norms towards entrepreneurship held by the family members observed in this study, closely mirrored the PBC of the subjects under observation, suggesting that being surrounded by friends and family member that consider a particular behaviour to be acceptable helps in developing a stronger sense of feasibility and control towards the behaviour. Families 1, 3 and 5 all demonstrated negative views about entrepreneurship, and in all three of them it was as a result of negative past experience relating to entrepreneurship that had led to difficult situations for the family. These feels were passed on to the younger generation, leading to a sense of self-doubt in them.

“I would really want to support my children in everything they want to do. But if I see them going down a path..[starting a business]..that I know is going to be difficult, then I have to step in and protect them.” – (Father, Family 3).

Family 2, 4 and 6 all showed positive and open minds regarding entrepreneurial career. Family 2 being a typical, large business family had positive views relating to entrepreneurship and were always in favour of their children following the same path as them to further continue the family business. Despite not having any links to

entrepreneurship, family 4 and 6 were very receptive and positive towards entrepreneurship. In family 4, it was evident that the strong emotional attachment to their son made them want to fulfil all his dreams and passions. The family had a large and varied friend circle and although no one in the family was directly involved in entrepreneurship, they had a lot of friends that were involved in entrepreneurial careers, which was responsible for their open attitude towards entrepreneurship. Apart from this, a strong financial background also allowed them to give their son the freedom to experiment. This was also the case for family 6, where the older siblings had a strong role to play in the life of the youngest brother. They were encouraging and offered financial support as well to their younger brother to help him start his own venture. Their positive attitude had instilled a strong sense of believe in the younger brother.

5.3.9 Intention towards entrepreneurship held by the young individuals

In each of the six families, there was a strong correlation between the results that were observed for the three antecedents of the TPB and the observations made regarding the intentions towards entrepreneurship for the individuals under observation. However, interestingly with respect to each of the factors relating to family, different effects were seen on the entrepreneurial intentions on the individuals. In family 1 and 3, the overall negative environment, the lack of support and encouragement were responsible for the lack of any intentions towards entrepreneurship. On the other hand, even though family 5 was very supporting and encouraging towards their daughters, there was an underlying assumption that entrepreneurial careers were not acceptable. This was responsible for the lack of any intentions in the young individuals.

“I’m not really keen on starting any business or venture on my own. I quite enjoy the work I do now, and my parents are proud too” – (Older daughter, family 5).

In family 2, 4 and 6, the young individuals being observed displayed strong intentions towards entrepreneurial behaviour. While in family 2, the intentions were due to the involvement in the family business. But the main subject of observation, also displayed intentions to start a venture outside that of the family.

“My position in the business keeps me quite occupied, but if I get time, I would love to branch out and do something new for a change.” – (Son, Family 2).

Family 4 and 6 did not have any direct connections with entrepreneurship or entrepreneurs, but their open attitude and nature helped the development of intentions in the young individuals. One of the factors that was common to both these families was the low need to conform to a fixed image of the family. Both the families demonstrated that they were not affected by what image was portrayed in their social groups and only wanted to ensure that their children are happy and successful. Hence, in the absence of this pressure to conform, the young individuals in these families were able to go against what could be considered the norm and try something that they wanted to.

“It doesn’t matter to us what other people around us will think. For me, it was always about what I am happy doing and how to become good at it.” – (Son, Family 4).

Hence, the sections above have outlined the key findings and results that emerged from the analysis of the qualitative ethnographies.

The results of the thematic analysis shown above have been summarised in the following Table 5.6.

	Encouragement and Support	Socialisation	Experience and Experimentation	Family Support Structure	Need to conform to 'Image'	Personal Attitude	Perceived Behavioural Control	Subjective Norms	Entrepreneurial Intentions
Family 1	Low	Moderate	Low	Present	High	Negative	Negative	Negative	Absent
Family 2	Low	High	High	Absent	High	Positive	Positive	Positive	Present
Family 3	Very Low	Very Low	Low	Absent	High	Positive	Negative	Negative	Absent
Family 4	High	Low	Low	Present	Low	Positive	Positive	Positive	Present
Family 5	High	Low	Low	Present	High	Negative	Negative	Negative	Absent
Family 6	High	Low	Low	Present	Low	Positive	Positive	Positive	Present

Table 5.6: Summary of ethnographic data analysis

The next section will briefly discuss these in context with the current literature and pave the way for using these findings in a quantitative manner as discussed in the following chapters.

5.4 DISCUSSION

The results from the ethnographies discussed above highlighted how an individual's family can influence their entrepreneurial intentions. The data collected highlighted 5 key themes that were present in each of the families that had an impact on the development of entrepreneurial intentions. These were Support and Encouragement, Socialisation, Experience and Experimentation, Additional family support structure and the Family Image.

The data suggested that the encouragement and support provided by an individual's family influences the extent to which the young individuals consider a specific behaviour to be feasible. The motivations that are provided by the family influence the perceived feasibility, as well as the desirability of the behaviour, by the younger generation. The support offered to the youth within the family, either financially or psychologically, dictates whether the young individuals consider themselves capable of undertaking an entrepreneurial career and hence can impact the development of their Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC), as well as the development of a positive attitude, towards entrepreneurship. This was similar to the findings of Dyer (2006) and Chua et al (2009) who showed that the physical or psychological support provided by the parents can influence the development of entrepreneurial intentions of the youth. Hence, the **'Encouragement and Support'** provided by an individual's family can impact the entrepreneurial intentions by affecting the Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC) as well as the Personal Attitude (PA) of the individual with regards to an entrepreneurial career.

Apart from the psychological effects discussed above, this study highlighted the presence of an additional support structure within the family, in terms of older siblings or working mothers, that could influence the manner in which the young individuals in the family viewed entrepreneurial careers. The study showed that there was a greater propensity for the youngest sibling/child in the family to have a greater inclination towards

entrepreneurship. This could be due to the additional support that these children received from their older siblings. Another trend that is worth highlighting was the correlation between the roles held by women in the house to the level of freedom that was given to the children to follow their entrepreneurial ambitions. It was observed that families where the women (mothers/wives) had a more traditional role, the children had lesser freedom for deciding their career paths. This could be due to the dominant, almost over-powering, position held by the men (father/husband) in the house, which allowed them to take decisions on behalf of all other members. Another explanation could be that families where women did not have traditional roles, were financially more stable, since both partners were working, and hence were able to provide a ‘safety-net’ or back-up to their children in case they failed in their entrepreneurial endeavours. Therefore, this added **Support Structure** within the family, was adding to the extent to which the youth within a family considered entrepreneurship to be a feasible career option, hence impacting their Perceived Behavioural Control. Also, the presence of this additional support from their siblings and mother, added to a positive subjective norm towards entrepreneurial behaviour. Hence, apart from its impact on PBC, having an additional support structure also had an impact on the Subjective Norms of the individual.

Furthermore, the **Socialisation** by the family, in terms of their previous experiences relating to entrepreneurship and the number of entrepreneurs in their social circle influenced the way in which the youth viewed entrepreneurship. If a family member, or someone that they knew closely, had experienced a positive or negative incident relating to entrepreneurship then this would lead to family members developing a particular mind-set towards entrepreneurship. Hence, if they had experienced a positive event relating to entrepreneurship then they were more likely to be supportive to the idea of entrepreneurship as compared to those that had experienced negative events. The discussion of these anecdotes within the family, had an impact on the attitude that the

children developed towards entrepreneurship as well. Constant discussion of the negative events and the negative consequences associated with entrepreneurship led to the children developing a negative attitude towards entrepreneurship and impacted their desirability (Personal Attitude) towards an entrepreneurial career. This was evident in the conversations that were made with members of Family 1, Family 3 and Family 5. This is similar to the results reported by Dunn and Holtz-Eakin (2000) who showed that the inter-generational transfer of entrepreneurial skills/abilities is significant only when the parents have had a successful and positive experience with self-employment, which is in line with the results of this study where negative past experiences of parent's leads to discouragement towards entrepreneurial careers. Additionally, Boyd and Vozikis (1994) highlighted that past achievements are important for the reinforcement of self-efficacy in individuals. In this study, the past achievements and experiences of close family members, which is captured by the construct of Socialisation, seems to influence the feasibility towards an entrepreneurial career. In addition to this, the positive or negative discussion regarding entrepreneurship led to the development of subjective norms, either in favour off or against the idea of entrepreneurship that get engrained in the minds of the young individual.

These factors, looking at the support and encouragement, as well as the socialisation that comes via the family, seem to address the previous issues raised regarding the lack of the affective component in the TPB. The ethnographies highlighted that in order for young individuals to fully develop a strong positive attitude towards a particular behaviour, there needs to be a constant reinforcement of their beliefs by individuals that are important and close to the young subjects. Carver and Scheier (2001) suggested that such emotions can be used to predict intentions alongside attitude. Hence, the inclusion of the factors relating to socialisation and support and encouragement are

useful in adding this important ‘affective’ component to the attitude factor of TPB, with the aim of improving its predictability.

Another aspect that is well documented in entrepreneurial literature is the importance of previous experience for the development of intentions. The theme **‘Experience and Experimentation’** captured the effect that past work experience held by the younger generation and the presence of role models can have on entrepreneurial intentions by either affecting the attitude held by the individual or by affecting their perceived control over the behaviour. Several authors in the past have suggested that an individual’s past behaviour can influence their intentions, via its impact on the individual’s self-efficacy and feasibility. Although, Ajzen (1991) has contradicted most of these claims studies conducted by Bagozzi and Kimmel (1995), Leone et al (1999) and Ouellette and Wood (1998) have shown evidence that past behaviour can effect both intentions and behaviour. Individuals that previously have gained experience of working in entrepreneurial ventures, usually as a result of being born into a business family, have positive intentions towards entrepreneurship. Also, the family of such individuals is found to be more supportive towards their entrepreneurial ventures. Hence, those individuals that had gained experience by actually working in an entrepreneurial environment, demonstrated stronger intentions during continuing on the entrepreneurial path. To some extent, the addition of this factor helps to address the concerns raised regarding the absence of ‘automatic processes’ in the TPB and the importance of past behaviour and habit. The prior exposure to entrepreneurial behaviour, and the experience gained by having worked in entrepreneurial venture adds to the internal locus of control in the individual, leading to stronger sense of feasibility towards the behaviour and hence stronger intentions as well. However, what is also of importance here is the presence of strong role models that might have stemmed from their prior experience in entrepreneurship. None of the young

individuals that were observed indicated any strong role models within the family that would add to their desirability towards an entrepreneurial career.

Finally, one of the factors that was present in varying degrees was the need to conform to a social image. This was found in both business and non-business families. Every family had a particular '**Image**' that had been formed in their social circles and it was believed to be the responsibility of each of the members to protect that family image and identity. Any decisions taken by members that could endanger that image of the family, were highly and openly discouraged.

Society, culture and social obligations play an important part in the Indian familial set-up. Individuals in the family are expected to respect and uphold the position of the family within the society (Sharma and Rao, 2000; Medora, 2007). For example, in the business families (Family 1 and 2) the image that they were trying to present to the society was that of strong family bonds, highly successful business activities and a family that always unanimously takes all its decisions. This was important from a business perspective to them, as the lack of unity within the family would make people doubt the stability of the business as well. As a result of the need to stick to this image, there was no encouragement to start a business outside the realms of the current family business either – with the fear that it might make people think that there was a rift in the family.

When looking at the non-business families, the image that they wanted to portray were that of stable careers for their children. The social circles that these families often interacted with had somewhat negative views about entrepreneurship and business in general, they believed that entrepreneurship should only be taken up as a last resort when individuals are unable to obtain good private or public sector jobs. Hence, in order to avoid this stigma in society, entrepreneurial career choices were often strongly discouraged. A good example to look at the effect that the pressures associated with conforming to an image can have, can be seen by comparing family 4 and family 5 (See table 5.6). While

the two families were very similar in the support provided to children, the financial resources, high educational backgrounds of parents – the only differentiating factor was that family 4 did not bow down to the pressures of a certain image. Whereas, despite being very supportive of all the needs and requirements of the children in family 5, the parents were aware of the ‘academically-oriented’ image that the family carried and were keen to ensure that the younger generation do not go against this.

To summarise, families, irrespective of their background, at times felt the need to conform to an image that had been created for them in their social circles. This pressure if transferred to the younger generation can be restrictive towards the aims and ambitions, especially if these aims and ambitions are not in line with the image the family wants to portray. This concept of ‘Image’ as described here is similar to the idea of social-identity as discussed previously by Bagozzi and Lee (2002) where behaviour and actions of individuals are influenced by a collective self-esteem or values that are collectively held by a group of related individuals, such as the family. Hence, the need to fit into a specific mould can influence the desirability towards such a career, and would also influence the subjective norms of that behaviour, especially when the behaviour is something that might negatively influence the family image. The feasibility or the PBC over the behaviour is also affected if an individual is aware that they will not receive any support from their family, or social circle, if they decided to go ahead with a decision that would have a negative impact on their family image.

An interesting observation that was made following the analysis of the results was that there were no patterns or biases that were noticed in the two family groups – business and professional – that were used for this study. For example, in Family 1 the negativities associated with the family business had led to the development of a culture that was very discouraging towards entrepreneurship and hence despite having a different background, the family was similar to other families coming from a professional background in their

values and beliefs. This suggested that only looking at the background of an individual is not sufficient for identifying their intentions. A more complex framework, including factors highlighted here such as socialization, image and experience and experimentation also must be taken into consideration. Also, the results suggest that while superficially business and professional families might have differences, the underlying mechanisms that govern the norms, values and beliefs that they pass on to the following generations may in fact be similar.

One of the limitations of this study, which can be addressed by future follow up studies, was that all of the families that were studied belonged to the same city, New Delhi. The diversity prevalent in vast country like India is an important factor that should be taken into consideration when trying to develop generalisable model based on the country. Although New Delhi and its surrounding areas such as Gurgaon are hot spots for entrepreneurship in India, this study would benefit from including families that belong to other locations in order to add to richness of the data. Additionally, not only is geographical and regional diversity a point that should be considered – but religious differences could also be another point of improvement in future studies. The sample for this study all belonged to the Hindu religion, who form the majority of the country's population. However, studying families belonging to the various other religious minorities in the country is another addition for future studies.

Based on the results discussed above, an empirical model was developed to highlight the various aspects of family that can act as antecedents to the factors described within the TPB and entrepreneurial behaviour (Figure 5.1). The exact relationships between each of these factors and those of the TPB will be analysed in the following quantitative chapter.

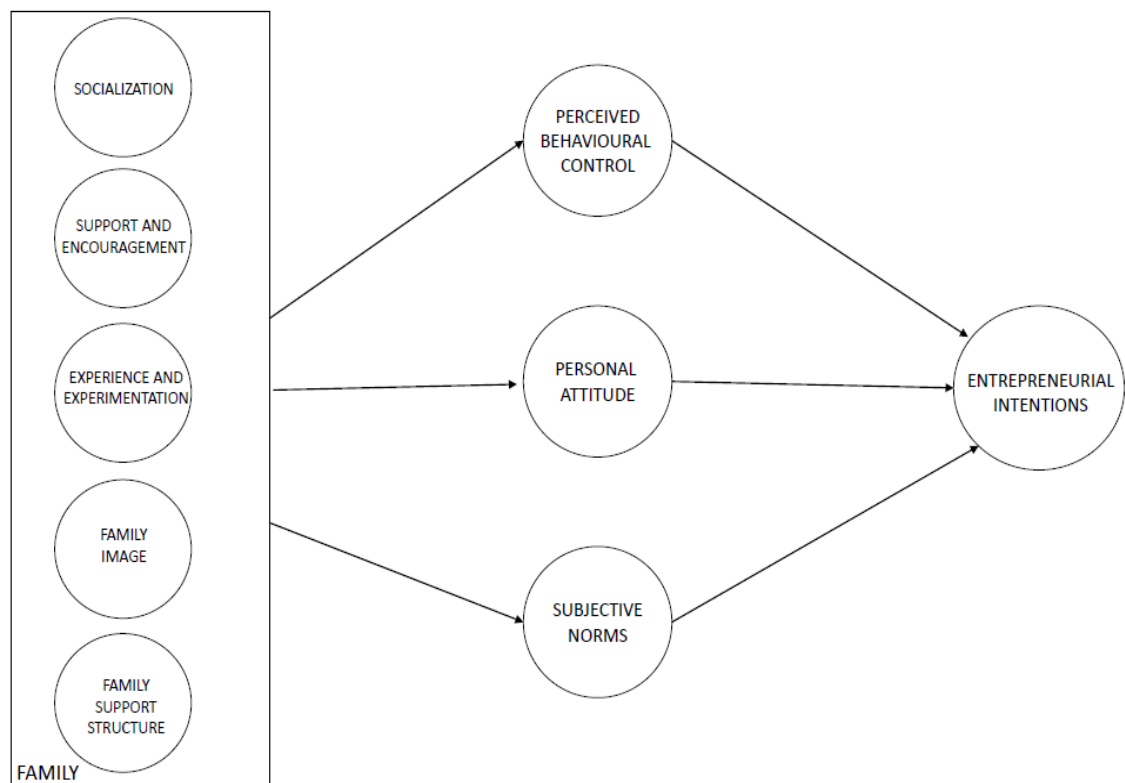


Figure 5.1: Effect on family on Entrepreneurial Intentions

5.5 CONCLUSION

The chapter above described the use of ethnographies, as a method of collecting qualitative data for this study. The six families chosen for analysis were described and excerpts from the time spent with each of the families was discussed in brief. Thematic analysis was used to analyse the data and identify themes that could be used to further define the influence that families have on the development of entrepreneurial intentions of the youth. Combining the literature review with the ethnographies helped to identify five themes that aim to broadly cover the various aspects of family that could influence the development of entrepreneurial intentions in the youth of these families – these include the support and encouragement offered by family members, the socialisation process within the family, experience and experimentation, the important role played by family image and reputation and finally, the role of additional support factors such as working siblings. The results from the qualitative study were used to develop an empirical model

which highlighted the impact of each of these factors had on the three antecedents to EI as described by the theory of planned behaviour. In order to further enhance and elucidate the role that family plays in influencing the entrepreneurial intentions of the youth, a second study, quantitative in nature, was conducted using surveys to test each of the above mentioned propositions developed by these ethnographic studies. The quantitative study, as discussed in the following chapter, will attempt to quantitatively link these propositions to the antecedents of Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour.

CHAPTER 6

QUANTITATIVE METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The following chapter aims to describe the methods that were used to collect primary, quantitative data in order to support and further quantify the results obtained from the ethnographic study. The data was collected by structured questionnaires administered to final year university students. The chapter is divided into six sections that describe the process of selecting samples, the designing and formation of the questionnaire, the strategy for data analysis and coding the data. Finally, the chapter describes the process of data analysis using Structural Equation Modelling, the justification behind the use of this method, its key characteristics and some criticisms.

6.2 PROCESS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION

6.2.1. Selecting Samples

Since it is usually not feasible to collect and analyses all available data, *sampling* techniques are used in order to simplify the process of data collection. Sampling helps to reduce the total amount of data collected by focusing on a smaller group rather than the entire population (DeVaus, 2002). The data collected from a sample is usually used by the investigators to generalise the results to the entire population under consideration. Apart from reducing the difficulties involved with collecting data from the entire population, sampling also helps to reduce the time and money that is spent on collecting data for the research (Saunders et al, 2009). Sampling techniques can be divided as either Probability (or Representative) and Non-probability (or Judgmental) sampling.

Non-Probability Sampling is used when it is either not possible to select samples based on probability or when it is considered more appropriate to use subjective judgement of the investigator to select samples for the research. This technique is commonly used for market-survey based research or case study research (Saunders et al, 2009; deVaus, 2002; Kervin, 1999).

a) Quota Sampling: This technique is a completely non-random way of selecting samples and is usually used when the sample size required is relatively large, that is in the range of 2000 to 5000. In this method, the population is divided into groups and the investigator decides a 'quota' for the number of samples to be picked from each of groups based on all the information that is available (Lohr, 2010). Samples are selected till the criteria of each quota is fulfilled and then all the samples from different groups is pooled together. While this technique is not random it is a good way of ensuring that the samples collected are representative of the entire population (Gorny and Napierala, 2015).

b) Purposive sampling: This method of sampling is used when the sample required is small. When specific information regarding an extreme case, or special population is required, the investigator can use their judgement to guide them towards selecting samples that will provide the best information. This technique is used in case study research or even in market research surveys when opinions of specific group/type of individuals are required (Ritchie et al, 2013).

c) Snowball sampling: This method is used for data collection from groups or individuals that are usually difficult to come across (Bryman, 2015). The key area of problem researching on groups that either have very small populations or those that choose not to be identified is making initial contact and identifying a few individuals from this

population. Once initial contact has been made, these individuals can be used to gain access to other individuals belonging to the same group by snowballing (Ritchie et al, 2013).

d) Self-Selection sampling: This technique involves publicising the aims and requirements of the research and the samples and it asks individuals who think they are eligible based on the criteria described to come forward and take part in the research. Methods to publicise the research include articles in magazines, advertisements, internet groups and social media (Saunders et al, 2009).

e) Convenience sampling: This method involves using samples that are easy or 'convenient' to find. This technique is not completely random nor is it always representative of the population as some form of bias is always involved in this method of data collection (Patton, 2002; Ritchie et al, 2013).

Since from the perspective of this thesis, one of the main reasons a quantitative study was added to follow-up from the previously described qualitative study, was to ensure that the results of the study are generalisable and not biased. Hence, it was decided to not use non-probability sampling as a method of data collection but instead use probability sampling.

Probability Sampling as the name suggests refers to sampling techniques where the probability of the sample being selected for study is known to the researcher and is usually same for all the samples chosen (Bryman and Bell, 2015). Five different techniques of probability sampling are commonly employed in collecting data, and are used most often in collecting survey-based data (Saunders et al, 2009; deVaus, 2002).

a) Simple Random sampling: This method involves selecting samples randomly

from the concerned population by using random number tables or computer programs that generate random numbers. Using such a technique ensures that the sample that is chosen is unbiased and therefore representative of the entire population concerned (Rossi, Wright and Anderson, 2013). Such a method can also be used for telephonic data collection techniques by dialling random digit telephone numbers and collecting data from them. Unless the population is spread over a large geographical area, this is one of the easiest and most convenient methods of sampling in an unbiased manner (Saunders et al, 2009).

b) **Systematic Sampling:** This method is a more organised and ‘systematic’ way of collecting data. A sampling fraction is determined by dividing the sample size required with the approximate size of the total population (rounded off to the nearest 10, 100 and so on). Therefore, if the fraction is $\frac{1}{3}$, every third case from the population is selected until the total sample size is reached. This method can be disadvantageous if certain underlying patterns are present in the population which will lead to this method not providing a totally ‘random’ sample (Saunders et al, 2009; Bryman, 2015). For example, if the population list is organised alphabetically or by age or gender, it could lead to a biased sample. It was decided not to use this method for selecting samples for this study, as the list of students that would be obtained from the colleges would be organised based on subject being studied and may be organised in certain patterns. Therefore, the use of sampling fraction could lead to selection of a biased, and not completely random sample.

c) **Stratified Random Sampling:** Under this method, the population is first divided in smaller sub-sets based on certain characteristics and then simple random or systematic samples can be chosen from each of the subsets and finally combined to form the final sample set. Dividing the population into ‘strata’s’ and then selecting randomly from them ensures that all different sub-populations get equally represented in the sample set

(Mertens, 2014). However, the increased time and complexity that is often associated with such a sampling technique was one of the key reasons why this method was not used for sample selection.

d) **Cluster Sampling:** This method is similar to the Stratified sampling discussed above. The population is divided in naturally occurring ‘clusters’ and then samples are selected randomly or systematically from these clusters. The difference between Clusters and Strata’s is that Clusters are formed on the basis of some naturally occurring characteristic that divides the population whereas strata’s are divided based on the characteristics decided by the investigator (Rossi, Wright and Anderson, 2013; Bryman and Bell, 2015). However, one of the key disadvantages of this technique is the increased sampling error that is usually found to be associated with such a method. Additionally, such a method often does not fully depict the diversity in the sampling frame. As a result of this, this method was not chosen as the main sampling technique.

e) **Multi-Stage Sampling:** This technique involves making clusters and sub-clusters and then using random sampling to choose samples from these various clusters (Bryman and Bell, 2015). This technique is useful when dealing with geographically dispersed populations that are difficult to sample together (Mertens, 2014). One of the drawbacks associated with this methodology is that since the researcher is involved in dividing the population into clusters that will be used for sampling, this results in high level of subjectivity, and at times bias. Additionally, since the population that was being studied for this research was not geographically dispersed it was decided not to use this technique for sampling in this study.

For the purpose of this study the method that was considered most appropriate for use due to its ability to provide completely random and unbiased samples was Simple

Random sampling. This method warrants that the sample is fully representative of the population under consideration, and that no specific groups, sub-sets or clusters have been either ignored or over-represented.

The population for this study comprises of final year university students from different colleges within the University of Delhi. Several studies in the past, based in different cultural settings, have evaluated entrepreneurial intentions using university students (18-21 years old) (Kolvereid, 1996b; Kolvereid, 2000; Tkachev and Kolvereid, 1999; Veciana et al, 2005). One suggestion that was put forward justifying the use of student samples was by Reynolds et al (2002) who showed that individuals between the ages of 25 – 34 have the greatest propensity of starting entrepreneurial ventures, hence making young individuals up to the age of 25 ideal candidates for studying intentions. In fact Sieger, Fueglistaller, and Zellweger (2011) highlighted that 10% of students worldwide showed intentions of opening a business as soon as they graduated and 30% suggested that they aim to do so within 5 years of graduating.

Additionally, it has been suggested that the unit of analysis should depend on what the study is trying to highlight. That is, if the study was aimed at looking at entrepreneurs, then using a student sample as a proxy would not be appropriate (Mitchell and Dino, 2011). But since the objective of this study was to look at the entrepreneurial intentions of the youth, a student sample was believed to be suitable. It is important to highlight at this stage that the sample that was observed in the qualitative part of this study consisted of a wider age range, from 18-34 years, and was hence in essence different from the sample used in this quantitative study. However, the objective behind each of these studies was different and thus justified the difference in sample. In the qualitative study, the aim was to get a broad perspective of the underlying themes, trends and patterns that are common across Indian families. The study looked at individuals between the ages of 18-34 years as this was the range defined for the youth under the GEM reports. More than identifying the

entrepreneurial intentions in each of the individuals observed within the families, the aim was to look at the effect that day-to-day interaction and communication with family members can have on the individual. Hence, the focus was on the relationship of the individual with the family members, and the family unit as a whole. However, in contrast to that, the focus in this quantitative part of the study is only on the young individual and measuring their entrepreneurial intentions. Hence, final year students were chosen as the sample for this study, with the aim that these students were most likely to be at a stage where they need to take decisions to choose their career paths once they graduate from university and hence would be most appropriate to test entrepreneurial intentions.

Developing a '*Sampling Frame*' is an essential part of probability sampling. A sampling frame defines the entire list of cases from the population that can be used as a part of the research. Samples are then drawn from within this frame to ensure that they are fully representative of the population (Edwards et al, 2007). The initial sampling frame developed for this study was the complete list of colleges from University of Delhi, India. This information is readily available on the internet from the official website of the university. Simple random sampling was conducted by assigning numbers to each of the colleges and then a computer software was used to generate random numbers to identify 6 colleges from within the sampling frame. Contact was made with the Principals of each of these colleges by sending a written summary of the project and a letter requesting permission to hold the survey within the premises of the college. The aims and objectives of the project were also highlighted along with the possible future implications of the research.

Once access had been gained and permission acquired, another sampling frame was developed which included a list of roll numbers/student numbers of all students studying in each of selected colleges. The list from each of the 6 colleges was combined

to generate a complete list of all final year students in the 6 chosen colleges. Simple random sampling was once again conducted by using a computer software to randomly select students from the final student list in order to reach the total sample size. At each stage of selecting students based on simple random sampling, permission was requested from the students and sampling continued till the required sample size was reached. The students were contacted either by email or phone (based on contact details registered with college). The aim of the study was explained to the students and they were asked to confirm whether they would be able to complete the questionnaire. Once the students confirmed, they were provided with a date, time and location for where the questionnaire will be handed out. In each of the colleges, the researcher had requested the administration team to book a lecture theatre on a specific date so that students can arrive at the common venue and complete the questionnaire under the supervision of the researcher. The students spent approximately 1 hour to complete the questionnaire and handed it over to the researcher once completed.

6.2.2 Selecting a sample size

Once the sampling technique had been identified, the next step involves determining the appropriate sample size for the chosen technique. Generally, having a large sample size helps to ensure that the data generated will be generalisable and representative to the entire population. However, large sample sizes involve larger amounts of time and money being spent on collecting and analysing the data.

Usually, a 95% confidence interval is used for research data. This implies that 95% of the data collected will be accurate and reliable. Additionally, a 5% margin of error is commonly used in survey questionnaires (Guest, 2013). Therefore, if the population size is known, the size of the sample required that will exhibit the results with 95±5% confidence can be calculated. The total student population of Delhi University is around

488,000 students (DU, 2011). Since for the purpose of this research, the population has been defined as only final year university students from the 6 colleges that were selected from the first sampling frame, the total population of students in the final year of these colleges was 18,400 individuals. The estimation of the sample size is based on the formula given below and is commonly used for determining the sample size of large populations of unknown variability (Cochran, 1963).

$$n_o = \frac{\frac{Z^2(p)(q)}{e^2}}{1 + \frac{(Z^2(p)(q))}{(e^2N)}}$$

Z= area under the curve for the desired confidence level

e= Desired level of precision i.e the margin of error

N=Population

p= the variability in the population

q= 1-p

For a 95% confidence interval the value for z = 1.96 and with a $\pm 5\%$ margin of error, the value of e = 0.05 and a population size of 18,400. It was decided to use maximum variability in the population while calculating the sample size and hence, the variability of 50% was chosen giving a value of p=0.5 and thereby q=0.5 as well (Israel, 2013).

Based on these assumptions:

$$n_o = \frac{\frac{(1.96)^2(0.5)(0.5)}{(0.05)^2}}{1 + \frac{(1.96)^2(0.5)(0.5)}{(0.05)^2(18,400)}}$$

$$n_o = 377$$

While, the sample size can be calculated based on the required confidence level and the total population size, it does not account for the non-responders in the survey. Non-responses usually occur due to samples refusing to respond and participate in the research or due to ineligibility or unclear responses provided (Neuman, 2005; Saunders et al, 2009). In order to deal with the non-response problem in this study, permission was requested from the students during the stage of sample selection, and sample selection was continued till the time sufficient positive responses had been received from the final number of respondents. This helped to reduce the non-response rate partially. Since a strict standard of selecting samples was followed, the chances of rejection of responses due to ineligibility were also substantially reduced. But in order to ensure that the best sample was selected and most representative and reliable data was generated the investigator estimated a modest response rate of 50% for data collection. Previous research has indicated that for organisational and management research the average response rate is usually around 53%, but recently due to the increase in the popularity of survey-based methods for data collection the response rate has been found to be gradually dropping (Baruch and Holtom, 2008; Anseel et al, 2010).

Therefore, the actual sample size to be used can be calculated using the formula below:

$$n^a = \frac{n_o \times 100}{re_1\%}$$

where n^a = actual sample size required

n_o = minimum sample size = 377 in this study

$re_1\%$ = estimated response rate for data collection = 50% in this study.

Based on this the actual sample size required:

$$\frac{377 \times 100}{50} = 754$$

This provides an actual sample size of 754 samples. Previous studies have used samples between 250 – 550 for testing entrepreneurial intentions in students and have been successful with relatively smaller sample size as well (Linán et al, 2008; Linán and Chen, 2009; Tkachev and Kolvereid, 1999). A minimum requirement of 754 samples was set for this study, however it was decided to collect as many valid samples as possible in order to add to the strength and credibility of the report and the quantitative methods that will be used for analysis of the final data. The flow diagram in Figure 6.1 explains the process of sample selection that was followed in this study.

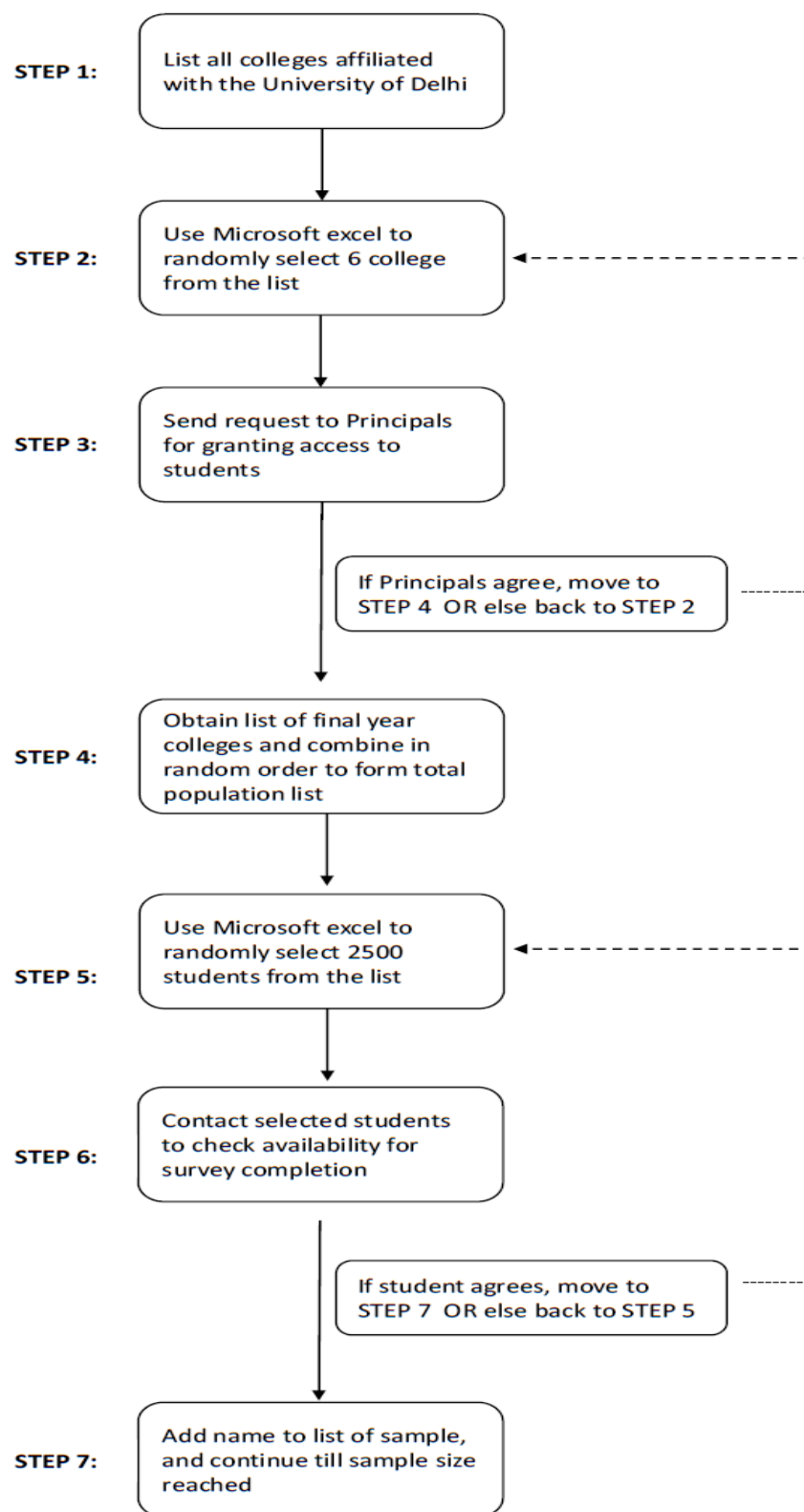


Figure 6.1: Flowchart for selecting samples for survey data collection

6.3 DATA COLLECTION BY STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRES

Once the samples had been selected, the next step was to collect the data. In this study, the data pertaining to entrepreneurial intentions of the youth, and the impact that family has on either promoting or inhibiting these intentions was collected by the use of structured questionnaires. This section will describe the importance of structured questionnaires in quantitative research and will go on to describe the development of the questionnaire used for data collection in this study.

6.3.1 Structured Questionnaires

A Questionnaire is a term that is used to define a broad range of quantitative data collection methods wherein every individual sample is required to answer to a pre-determined set of questions in a specific order. It is one of the most commonly used methods of collecting data from surveys of large populations that can be used to provide reliable quantitative information (DeVaus, 2002). However, having a well-designed questionnaire is extremely essential as it is often not possible to re-collect data from the sample and also the design of the questionnaire can affect the reliability and validity of the results as well as the response rate of the survey.

Questionnaires are considered appropriate for collecting data for both descriptive and explanatory research. For the purpose of this study, exploratory research was conducted as discussed in the previous chapter where ethnographic studies were conducted on various Indian families and that helped to identify several factors that influence entrepreneurial intention by affecting the individuals Personal Attitude, Subjective Norm and Perceived Behavioural Control. The aim of this part of the study was to further 'describe' and 'explain' the relationship between these different constructs and how they can be linked to previously described antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions.

The type of questionnaire and its mode of administration is dependent of the respondents/sample for data collection (Saunders et al, 2009; Dillman, 2007). Since the respondents of this study are young individuals it was decided that using internet/email administered questionnaires might reduce the response rate as the students could choose to ignore or ‘forget’ to respond to the emails. Therefore, following the random sampling procedure described above, all the respondents that agreed to participate in the study, were asked to arrive at a specific location, at a specified time and a hard copy of the questionnaire was then given to each of the subjects to fill in. The subjects were given around 1 hour to finish the questionnaire. This process was supervised by the principal investigator of this study. This allowed the investigator to be certain that the answers were provided by the respondents themselves and it also ensured a higher response rate. This method also helped to reduce the overall time spent for data collection. By personally conducting the questionnaires in each of the chosen colleges, it was ensured that all the data collection was completed within two weeks. This would not have been achieved if online surveys had been chosen as a means for collecting data as the investigator would have had to wait for all the respondents to send the questionnaires back at their convenience. Additionally, since most colleges within DU do not possess strong and reliable internal intranet connections and are not dependent on online resources to an extent that is common in other western universities, the use of internet-mediated questionnaires would have restricted the spread of the study.

6.3.2 Designing the Questionnaire

The aim of this structured questionnaire was to first begin by testing Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour on final year graduate students from various colleges in New Delhi, India. Furthermore, the questionnaire aimed to test some new factors that, if successful, could prove to be the predecessors of the antecedents of Intentions as described by Ajzen (1991). Developing a structured questionnaire requires detailed review of the literature in order to form precise questions that would help to answer the question at hand. The design of the questionnaire for this study was divided into two stages. The first stage involves developing a questionnaire for testing the entrepreneurial intentions of the student sample. There are several studies that have previously developed questionnaires to measure intentions and its relationship to the other variables as described by Ajzen. The main inspiration behind the development of this part of the questionnaire came from Ajzen's work (2001 and 2002). Several other studies by Linñan and Chen (2009), Kolvereid (1996b), Autio et al (2001) and Veciana et al (2005) were consulted to construct a comprehensive research instrument for measuring entrepreneurial intentions. Using a well-established and previously tested questionnaire is required in order to maintain consistency with the published literature. The use of an already established questionnaire also served as an internal control to main the quality of the data regenerated in this study. The Entrepreneurial Intentions Questionnaire as described in Linñan and Chen (2009) is the second most commonly cited paper according to a systematic literature review conducted by Linñan and Fayolle (2015) on entrepreneurial intentions research between 2004 and 2013. In addition to the sections testing entrepreneurial intentions and its related variables, the first section of the questionnaire was dedicated to gathering demographic data from the sample. This included details about the family background, parent's occupation, total family income and contact details for future work.

Entrepreneurial intention in this study is defined as the ‘willingness to start a new venture’. Previously, Chen et al (1998) and Zhao et al (2005) have both used similar scales to measure the ‘desire’ and the ‘behavioural intention’ towards entrepreneurship. However, for this study, the Likert-style scale as described in Linán and Chen (2009), Linán et al (2011) and Carr and Sequeira (2007) was used to measure **Entrepreneurial Intentions**. Seven items, as developed by Linán and Chen (2009) and Carr and Sequeira (2007), have been used in order to determine the individuals’ intention towards entrepreneurship based on a 7-point likert scale.

Ajzen (2001) suggests that since the antecedent of ‘**attitude**’ is belief, **personal attitude** should be measured using an aggregate scale which can analyse the relationship between belief and attitude and then attitude and intention as well. The same strategy was adopted by Linán and Chen (2009); Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud (2000); Linán et al (2011) and in this study as well where six items have been used to measure personal attitude. A 7-point Likert-style scale ranging from total disagreement to total agreement has been used.

Subjective Norms (Ajzen, 1991) is one of the most contested factors within the TPB. Several studies have shown no significant relationship between SN and Intentions and several studies even fail to include it while measuring intentions (Chen et al, 1998; Krueger et al, 1993; Autio et al, 2001; Krueger et al, 2000). The questionnaire developed by Linán and Chen (2009) uses a very simplistic scale to test subjective norms by measuring the opinions of three groups of important reference people – family, friends and colleagues. For the purpose of this study, the item testing the opinion of family was further broken down to individually measure the opinion held by the subject’s father, mother, siblings, grandfather and grandmother, in order to get a more detailed and comprehensive view of what potential role could be played by an individual’s family, and also see if a particular individual had a more influential role than others. Since measuring and further

analysing subjective norms is one of the key aspects of this study, more questions were developed in addition to this based on reviewing the literature and on the indications that were received after the ethnography. 7-point likert-type scaled questions were used to see what the subjects thought about the opinions held by significant others regarding entrepreneurship.

Ajzen (1991) suggests that control beliefs and specific efficacies are the antecedents to **perceived behavioural control**. Hence similar to those used to measure personal attitude, PBC was also measured using a six-item, 7-point likert scale as developed by Linán and Chen (2009) and Linán et al (2011) that measured the relationship between control belief, self-efficacy and PBC as well as PBC and intentions.

The second stage of the questionnaire development was based on trying to quantify the results obtained from the initial qualitative analysis of Indian families. The ethnographic data analysis revealed five variables that could influence the three antecedents of intentions. In order to ensure that relevant and comprehensive data is collected for each of the variables to be tested, it is important that each of the factors and their role in the model be clearly defined.

Entrepreneurial intentions forms the ‘dependent variable’ and each of the three antecedents tested above, personal attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control will form the ‘**mediating variables**’ in this second stage of the questionnaire. Each of the five factors that need to be tested for their effect on the three antecedents will act as the ‘**independent variables**’. Dependent variables are defined as those that change in response to other variables whereas independent variables are defined as those that cause the change in the dependent variables. Additionally, the mediating variable explains the relationship that exists between the dependent and the independent variable, and accounts for the effect of the independent variable that causes a change in the dependent variable (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005; Saunders et al, 2009). The aim of this study was to assess

whether an individual's family can affect the development of entrepreneurial intentions hence establishing the family as the independent variable and entrepreneurial intentions as the dependent variable. This study was also aimed at being able to explain how the family might be influencing entrepreneurial intentions. Since the qualitative study had suggested that the five variables that make up the entire family dimension might be affecting entrepreneurial intentions by acting on and influencing the three established antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions, it indicated towards the possibility of these TPB variables acting as mediators between the independent (Family) and dependent (Intentions) variables. Hence, in order to test whether family variables affect entrepreneurial intentions either directly, or by influencing the antecedents of these intentions, it was decided to use PA, PBC and SN as mediating variables that could explain the existing relationship, if any, between family and entrepreneurial intentions. Reversing the relationship and making the five family variables as the mediators of the relationship between TPB and entrepreneurial intentions would not be supported by the assumptions generated following the qualitative study, as this would suggest that an individual's attitude, behavioural control and subjective norms have the ability to modulate the family, which then in turn influence the entrepreneurial intentions. Furthermore, converting each of these variables into independent variables would still leave the question of how family influences entrepreneurial intentions unanswered. Hence in the current model, the researcher aims to analyse whether family has an effect on the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals, and whether this effect can be explained by the ability of the family to influence the individuals attitude, behavioural control and subjective norm towards entrepreneurship.

Additionally, when new scales are being developed, one of the key issues that arise are those revolving around the number of items that should be developed per measure. While fewer items can be helpful for reducing the response bias, they usually lack content and construct validity and also show lower reliability (Discussed in Chapter 7). However,

more items can result in respondent fatigue and bias (Hinkin, 1995). It is commonly accepted that as few as three valid items are sufficient for maintaining the reliability and validity of a measure (Cook et al, 1981).

The scales used for the new measures that have been created follow a 7-point likert-style. It has been suggested that use of 7-point scales provides stronger and more reliable results as it provides the respondents with enough options to choose from and prevents respondents from being neutral in their responses (Colman et al, 1997). While studies suggest that the results using 5-point and 7-point scales are usually comparable, the use of 7-point scale is known to increase the reliability of the measures used in the study (Colman et al, 1997). Additionally, it has also been recommended that a 7-point scale is more suitable when new measures and scales are being developed, such as in this study (Sauro, 2010). The new measures developed for use in the questionnaire are described below. The complete questionnaire is provided in Appendix 2.

Socialisation has been defined as the process by which values, views and traditions that are common within a family unit are passed on from one member to another and from one generation to another (Saporta, 2002). The items under this category were developed based on the ethnographic studies conducted earlier that highlighted importance of past experiences, either personal or those experiences held by family members to be important in influencing entrepreneurial intentions. This has been supported by several previous studies highlighting the importance of past experiences in development of intentions (Fairlie and Robb, 2005; Carr and Sequeira, 2007). Scherer et al (1989), based on the Social Learning theory suggest that children that have observed success of their parent's entrepreneurial ventures are more likely to have a positive outlook and greater intentions to become entrepreneurs as compared to those that have not witnessed this positive performance effect. This was in accordance to the observations made during the ethnography where the past experience of family members was found to have a deep

impact on the opinions held by the youth of the family. Therefore this was a factor that the investigator believed would be important in uncovering the factors behind development of entrepreneurial intentions. The following questions were developed by the investigator to test these assumptions:

- (a) Parents occupational background – Entrepreneurial/Business family or Professional family
- (b) Presence of entrepreneurial experience of family members
- (c) Quality of past experience of family members relating to entrepreneurship – Measured using 7-point Likert-style rating scale ranging from Very Positive to Negative
- (d) Opinion held by family members about entrepreneurship - Measured using 7-point Likert-style rating scale
- (e) Presence of entrepreneurs/business owners in social circle – Measured using 7-point Likert-style rating scale

Family Support and encouragement is defined as the psychological and moral support that is offered to members of a family unit by other members that encourages them to start a new venture. It also includes financial support as well as the chance to make use of family contacts. Items under this category were developed based on previous research by Aldrich and Cliff (2003) and Dyer (2006) and highlight that family is the main provider of financial resources, expertise, advice and labour to new entrepreneurs. Additionally, the ethnographic data emphasised the importance of encouragement as well as financial support as a key factor influencing intentions. The questions to measure support and encouragement from family were adapted from Carr and Sequeira (2007).

- (a) Presence of parental support to start new business – Measured using a 7-point Likert-style rating scale
- (b) Presence of parental encouragement towards new ideas and starting new ventures - Measured using a 7-point Likert-style rating scale

(c) Strength of family ties and relationship between members - Measured using a 7-point Likert-style rating scale

(d) Ability to provide financial support - Measured using a 7-point Likert-style rating scale

Experience and experimentation is an important aspect of learning that shapes the development of specific norms, values and attitudes. The presence of an entrepreneurial role model is considered to be one of the key driving factors that can motivate individuals to become entrepreneurial (Fayolle, 2014). Additionally, having experience in starting an entrepreneurial venture or experience of being involved in an entrepreneurial venture can influence an individual's entrepreneurial intentions (Ajzen, 1991). The ethnographic studies provided some evidence to suggest that having previously been involved in some entrepreneurial activity can have a positive effect on the entrepreneurial intentions of an individual. Peterman and Kennedy (2003) used a Yes/No scale to measure any past experience with entrepreneurship in their study on entrepreneurial intentions, and this was adapted into a likert-style scale for the purpose of this study. Additionally, Aldrich and Cliff (2003) highlight that family transitions such as death of parent/s, divorce, childbirth and other factors that can compel individuals to start entrepreneurial ventures can also lead to development of entrepreneurial intentions. While, the samples that formed a part of the ethnography did not provide any examples to support this idea, it was decided to try to use a questionnaire to identify whether evidence for this could be found in a larger sample. This has been tested by the following questions developed by the investigator:

(a) Presence of any entrepreneurial experience, or of starting an entrepreneurial venture – Measured using a 7-point likert-style scale

(b) Participation, in any form, in entrepreneurial ventures – Measured using a 7-point likert-style scale.

- (c) Presence of Entrepreneurial role models - Measured using a Yes/No style scale
- (d) Experience of family transitions – Measured using a 7-point likert-style scale

Family Support Structure was another novel factor that was identified during the ethnographic data analysis. This has been defined as the presence of ‘added financial or moral support’ provided to individuals either by older siblings or due to greater financial stability as a result of both working parents. Ethnographic studies indicated that presence of working females, and those with ‘non-traditional’ roles can influence the Perceived behavioural control of individuals. Similar to that observed in the ethnographic study, Begin and Fayolle (2014) have also described that families where women demonstrate predominantly traditional roles have lower entrepreneurial intentions as compared to those where women have roles similar to those held by the men in the family. The presence of a working mother is not only important due to the financial stability that it provides to a family, but it has also been shown to have a positive impact on the career ambitions of the children. It has been shown to make the children more independent, autonomous, achievement orientated and self-reliant, all factors that could be important for the development of future entrepreneurs (Schindehutte et al, 2003). The importance of this in developing entrepreneurial intentions was assessed by the following items developed by the investigator based on Begin and Fayolle (2014) and on the observations made during the ethnography:

- (a) Presence of financially independent siblings - Measured using a Yes/No scale
- (b) Presence of working mother - Measured using a Yes/No scale
- (c) Presence of traditional roles held by women/men – Measured using 7-point Likert-style rating scale ranging from total disagreement to total agreement.

Image refers to the social, cultural and societal obligations that individuals within a family are expected to uphold and respect. The ties of the family, therefore define the boundaries and rules of behaviour for each of the relatives (Tagiuri and Davis, 1996). As

a result of these strict rules conduct, individuals from outside the family circle start associating certain behaviours and traits with certain families and begin to expect certain specific types of behaviour. The behaviour and traits of each individual of the family therefore reflect upon the overall traits of the family and can affect the reputation of the entire family (Tagiuri and Davis, 1996). As a result of this, families may tend to ‘police’ the behaviour of other family members to ensure that everyone is acting in a manner that is ‘acceptable’, leading them to conform to the family image. These factors have been found to be especially essential in the context of Indian families where family members are expected to maintain the ‘respect’ and ‘position’ of their families in the social hierarchy and are expected to behave in a manner that is suitable to the family image (Sharma and Rao, 2000; Medora, 2007). Results of the ethnographic studies revealed that the need to conform to the social ‘image’ and maintain their position in society was an important factor that was influencing the decisions made by family members. The following items were developed by the investigator to measure the influence that ‘social image’ has on the antecedents of intentions:

- (a) What the individual visualises himself/herself as in the future – Open question allowing the respondents to write down their choice
- (b) What the individual thinks that his/her friends/family see them as in the future - Open question allowing the respondents to write down their choice
- (c) How would failure in any new venture affect the social standing of the individual – Measured using a 7-point likert-style rating scale ranging
- (d) How would success in any new venture affect the social standing of the individual – Measured using a 7-point likert-style rating scale

Category	Question number	Source
Personal Attitude	11	Adapted from Linān and Chen (2009)
Subjective Norm	13	Adapted from Linān and Chen (2009)
	15	From Linān et al (2011)
	16	Based on literature review (Chlosta et al. 2010; Dunn and Holtz-Eakin, 2000; Fairlie and Robb, 2007; Hout and Rosen, 2000; Krueger et al, 2000)
	16	Based on literature review and ethnographic data (Minniti and Bygrave, 2001; Cope, 2003; Boyd and Vozikis, 1994 and Scherer et al, 1989)
Perceived Behavioural Control	19	Adapted from Linān and Chen (2009)
Entrepreneurial intention	21	Adapted from Linān and Chen (2009) and Linān et al (2011)
	22	Adapted from Linān and Chen (2009), Carr and Sequeira, (2007) and Linān et al (2011)
Socialisation	25-27	Based on literature review and ethnographic data (Fairlie and Robb, 2005; Carr and Sequeira, 2007)
	32	Based on literature review and ethnographic data (Fairlie and Robb, 2005; Carr and Sequeira, 2007; Boyd and Vozikis, 1994 and Scherer et al, 1989)
Support and Encouragement	31	Adapted from Carr and Sequeira (2007); Based on literature review and ethnographic data
	33	Based on literature review and ethnographic data (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003; Dyer, 2006)
Experience and Experimentation	29	Adapted from Peterman and Kennedy (2003); Based on literature review and ethnographic data (Fayolle, 2014)
	34	Based on literature review and ethnographic data (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003)
Family Support Structure	35	Based on literature review and ethnographic data (Begin and Fayolle, 2014)
	36	Based on literature review and ethnographic data (Begin and Fayolle, 2014)
	37	Based on literature review and ethnographic data (Begin and Fayolle, 2014)
Image	38-44	Based on literature review and ethnographic data (Tagiuri and Davis, 1996; Sharma and Rao, 2000; Medora, 2007; Linān et al (2011))

Table 6.1: Sources of questions used in Questionnaire

The following figure (Figure 6.2) illustrates the suggested interactions between the variables described above that will be tested in the next chapter.

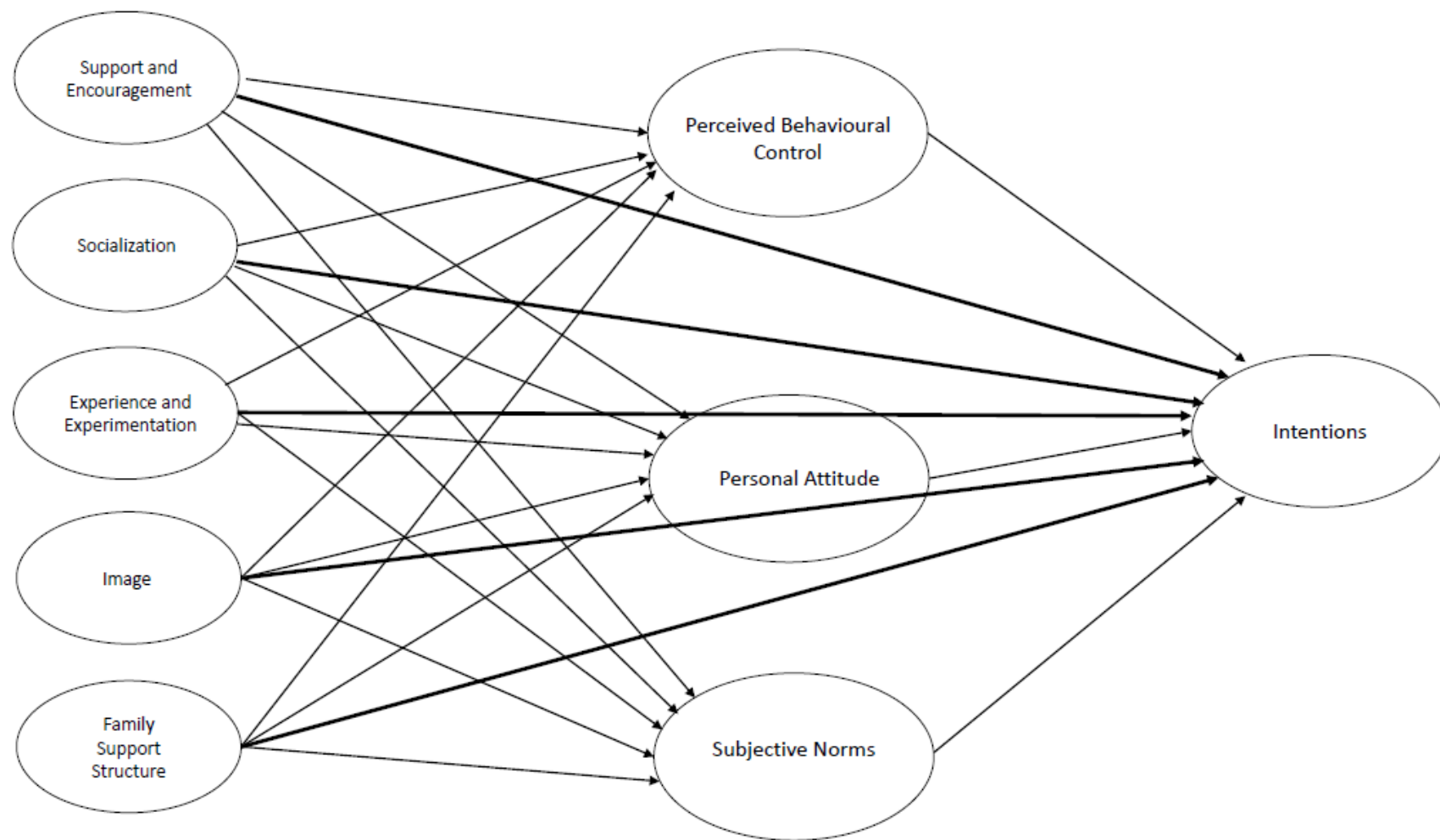


Figure 6.2: Suggested interactions between model variables

6.3.3. Control variables

Apart from the items and factors discussed above, every questionnaire is expected to have certain control variables present. Control variables are variables that are not being measured in the specific study, but they have to be held constant or balanced for, so that they do not have any biasing influence on the other variables. Similar studies looking at entrepreneurial intentions in the past have used demographic factors as control variables, to control for on intentions (Linán and Chen, 2009). In this study, the control variables used include Family background, Gender, Total annual income, Field of study, Presence of siblings and living in a joint family.

6.3.4 Pilot Study

The questionnaire that was developed was pilot tested on 200 students, chosen by convenience sampling and snowballing, in order to check the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. The students were selected from colleges of University of Delhi, in order to keep the pilot sample as close to the real sample as possible. 162 valid questionnaires were obtained. The Cronbach alpha for each of the constructs were found to be above 0.7, except for the Family Support Structure construct, that had a low Cronbach alpha of $\alpha=0.393$. However, it was decided to retain this construct for the final survey, in order to see whether a greater sample size would help in improving the value. One of the main concerns that were raised by those who participated in the pilot study was that the questionnaire was too long. Therefore, for some of the factors, some items were deleted, keeping in mind the reliability of the scale. Apart from minor corrections to the language and layout of the pilot questionnaire, the questionnaire was found to be valid to be used for the final study.

6.4 COVERING LETTER AND PURPOSE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Dillman (2007) suggests that the covering letter is crucial in determining the response rate of the questionnaire. Saunders et al (2009) also recommend that a covering letter can be sent to the selected sample before the actual administration of the questionnaire so that they can decide beforehand if they want to be a part of the sample or not. For the purpose of this study, a detailed cover letter that clearly explained the aims and purpose of this study was sent initially to college principals to gain access to the shortlisted colleges. Following approval, a short but convincing letter was sent by email to each of the randomly selected students requesting them to be a part of the survey. Along with the cover letter, the students were directly sent an invite as well which they had to either accept or decline after reading the letter. The covering letter clearly explained that the data will be kept strictly anonymous and the details disclosed will not be used for any other purpose other than those described in the letter.

6.5 DATA ANALYSIS

Quantitative analysis of entrepreneurial intentions has been undertaken by several studies in the past (Autio et al, 2001; Chen et al, 1998; Fayolle et al, 2006; Kolvereid, 1996b; Zhao et al, 2005). However, several of these studies on entrepreneurial intentions have relied on linear regression to test these models, despite the threat of getting biased results (Chandler and Lyon, 2001). However, this study based on the work done by Linán et al (2008) and Linán and Chen (2009) will make use of structural equation modelling (SEM) to test the relationship between the antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions as described by Ajzen (1991) as well as the five new constructs developed in this study. Ullman (1996) suggests that a sample of around 500 is usually required for SEM, however small and medium sized models can be evaluated using samples of around 200 as well. SEM is commonly used technique in social science and organisational behaviour and is

used to test the structural relationship between the variables of the hypothesised model (Byrne, 1994). It is considered one of the most appropriate techniques for testing a model, testing specific hypothesis about a model or even modifying an existing model (Ullman, 1996). As compared to other statistical methods such as regression analysis, SEM provides more relevant information about the analysed data as it depends on calculating the covariance between the factors rather than only correlation (Hu and Bentler, 1999).

6.6 DATA CODING

2500 questionnaires were distributed amongst final year students, out of these 1415 were received. From these 292 were considered unusable due to incomplete data. Finally, 1123 complete questionnaires were analysed for this study. This provided an effective response rate of 44%. Baruch and Holtom (2008) highlight that the average response rates for management and organisational research studies is around 53%. However, recent studies have indicated that due to the increasing popularity of surveys across these fields of study, over all the response rates seem to be declining (Anseel et al, 2010).

Data coding is an essential part to be fulfilled prior to survey data analysis. Correct and accurate data coding and data entry is a pre-requisite for achieving reliable and valid results from the data. The questionnaire as described in the previous chapter was coded using the strategy described below. The code for each item on the questionnaire was made up of the initials of the construct that it was expected to be testing followed by lower case alphabets in ascending order. Coding for each item on the questionnaire is detailed in Appendix 1. The coded data was entered into the data analysis statistical software, SPSS.

Prior to beginning the process of data analysis, the inputted data was inspected to make sure there were no missing data values. Microsoft excel was used to ensure that no data was missing in any of the responses. If the missing data constituted less than 5% of the total responses required for that variable, then the missing values were replaced with

the means. However, if the missing responses were more than 5%, then the questionnaire was not used for analysis. In the initial screening, the 292 questionnaires that were rejected were only due to the presence of missing data. Outliers in the data were identified by producing box plots. For most of the variables, since a 7-point Likert scale was used, there were no outliers present. The only item that was checked for the presence of outliers was, Age. As the study was conducted amongst final year university students, the age range was also small and no outliers were found in this item as well.

6.7 PROCESS OF DATA ANALYSIS

6.7.1 Structural Equation Modelling

Social science research is usually associated with measuring complex phenomenon such as Attitude, Behaviour and Emotions that can often neither be directly observed nor can they be measured by using a single-item on questionnaires. Therefore, it is common for multi-item scales to be used for measuring such variables that are common in social research. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is statistical analysis technique that is required for testing the relationship between such multi-item measures in order to increase the credibility of social science research (Bowen and Guo, 2011). This method is now commonly used in social science and organisational behaviour research, especially when testing a new model, or even for verifying an existing model (Ullman, 1996). It is widely considered to be one of the most popular statistical analysis methodology used in several fields of quantitative social sciences (Cheng, 2001).

In this method, the hypothesised model is depicted graphically, where the relationship between various factors or variables are shown in the form of lines connecting each variable. The lines connecting variables can either be uni-directional or bi-directional. Uni-directional arrows indicate a dependence relationship between the two, whereas a bi-directional arrow indicates either covariance, variance or correlation. Furthermore, the

variables that are depicted within either rectangles or squares are Observed Variables and those that are depicted within circles or ellipses are Unobserved/Latent variables (Rahman, Shah and Rasli, 2015).

The relationship between each variable is then statistically tested by several simultaneous regression equations (Byrne, 1994). SEM is usually used as an 'Umbrella' term, as it is made up of several commonly used multi-variate data analysis statistical methods such as ANOVA, Factor Analysis and Path analysis (Bowen and Guo, 2011). As a technique it estimates the linear relationships that exist between various variables and can be used in both a confirmatory and an exploratory study. However, more often than not, it is used for the validation of defined models (MacCallum and Austin, 2000).

A SEM has two essential components – that is a Measurement Model and a Structural Model.

A **Measurement Model** tests the relationship that exists between the indicators of each latent variable with their respective variable in the model. Latent Variables are defined as hypothetical factors that are being tested, and are formed based on high covariances between a group of indicators or items. The aim of the measurement model is to test how well the observed items *measure* a latent variable. Once a measurement model has been developed, it needs to be converted into a Structural Model (Hoyle, 1995).

A measurement model can be divided into two different types based on the relationship that exists between the items and the latent variables that they measure – A Reflective Model and a Formative Model (Edwards and Bagozzi, 2000). One of the problems associated with SEM is wrongly identifying the type of measurement model that is being developed. Misspecification of the measurement model can impact the structural paths that are formed in the structural model and result in incorrect regression coefficients

that determine the relationships between the various variables (Jarvis et al, 2005). Therefore in order to avoid this, it is important to be able to correctly identify the kind of measurement model that is being tested (Roy et al, 2012).

Reflective Measurement models

In such as model, it is hypothesised that there is a statistical relationship between the latent variable and the constructs or indicators that predict the latent variable. A change in the indicator variable, let's say X, will result in a change in the latent variable Y. Therefore, this also implies that if a change is brought about in Y, it will reflect in the changes caused in X. Models measuring such relationships are known to be Reflective, and it indicates a causality that exists from the latent variable towards the indicators. Therefore, in a reflective model, the latent variable is considered to be the cause, and each if the indicator variables are where the effect can be seen. In other words, the latent variable causes the change in the indicator variables (Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer, 2001). Such types of models are common in psychological and management studies.

Formative Measurement Models

In contrast to the reflective models, the direction of the relationship between indicator and latent variables is reversed. The direction of causality, therefore, goes from the indicator variables to the latent variables (Roy et al, 2012). The indicator variables in a formative measurement model are responsible for causing the latent variable. Additionally, while all the indicator variables together are seen to cause the latent variable being measured, it is not necessary that the various indicator variables are correlated to each other (Coltman et al, 2008).

Certain theoretical considerations exist in the literature in order to classify the measurement model as a Reflective Model. Firstly, the latent construct should exist independent of the indicator variables. Usually constructs measuring variables such as Attitude, Behaviour and Personality, as suitable for this type of a model. Secondly, the change in the indicator variables is caused by changes seen in the latent variable. Finally, the indicators of the latent variable usually share a common theme, they have strong intercorrelations with each other which can be tested empirically by measuring reliability, average variance extracted, factor loadings and convergent and discriminant validity (Coltman et al, 2008; Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2006).

The **Structural Model** tests the strength and the direction of relationship that exists between each of the latent variables (Hoyle, 1995; Bowen and Guo, 2011). Two types of variables are found within every model being tested. A **Dependent variable** is one that is being affected by other variables in the model. In the graphical model, these are identified by the presence of one-way arrows pointing at them. An **Independent Variable** is one that is being tested for its effect on the dependent variables. These do not have any one-way arrows pointing at them in the graphical representation of the model. In this study, the dependent variable is Intentions, with Personal Attitude, Perceived Behavioural Control and Subjective Norms acting as mediating variables, mediating the effect of the independent variable. The independent variables tested are Support and Encouragement, Socialisation, Image, Experience and Experimentation and Family Support Structure.

One of the issues that can arise in structural models, is when one of the explanatory or independent variables in the model is correlated with an unobserved variable or an error term, this is known as Endogeneity. This impacts the predictability of the model as it suggests that the changes in the dependent variable may not be due to the variables present in the model but do to something else (Sorensen, 2012). Endogeneity can exist also as result of simultaneity, which is when the dependent variable is caused by and also causes

the independent variable, in a continuous loop. Also, self-selected samples have been shown to exhibit this problem. One of the most common ways to avoid problems pertaining to endogeneity is by the inclusion of control variables. These are included in the model based on the understanding that these could impact both the dependent and independent variable. Their inclusion thus helps to substantiate the predictability of the model. In order to account for the effect that factors other than those related to family can have on intentions, this model included gender, income, subject studied at university, presence of siblings and living in a joint family as the control factors to help avoid any endogeneity related issues. The independent variables in this study were not found to be correlated to error terms.

SEM functions by evaluating two different types of covariance/variance matrices that are developed from the data set. The sample covariance matrix is developed from analysing the sample data. Using this, the software calculates a population covariance matrix known as the estimated population covariance matrix. The hypothesised model is said to fit the data well only when the estimated population covariance matrix closely matches the sample covariance matrix. In order to test for this several 'Goodness-of-fit' indicators have been developed that need to be analysed in order to determine the suitability of the model (Wuensch, 2014). The various goodness-of-fit indicators will be discussed in the following section.

6.7.2 Goodness-of-fit Indicators

SEM is becoming a commonly used technique in social science research. However, there is still a lack in consensus on how to determine what is considered a good model. The disparity in terms of model fit is limited not only to the large number of indicators that are available for measuring the fit, but there is also no consensus on the cut-offs that

are considered acceptable for a good model (Hooper et al, 2008). In fact, the use of model-fit indices is so disputed that there have been suggestions for completely abolishing their use (Barrett, 2007). The absolute fit indices that will be discussed in this section indicate how well the proposed model fits the sample data, in comparison to no model.

The first indicator is the Chi-Square (χ^2) of the model. This tests evaluates the discrepancy that exists between the covariance matrices of the sample data and the hypothesised model. For a model to be considered to have a good fit, the χ^2 should be insignificant at the 0.05 level (Barrett, 2007). The χ^2 test was one of the traditional tests that were used for evaluating the goodness of a model, however since this test is highly sensitive to the sample size, it almost always rejects a model. A large sample usually gets rejected based on the use of this test, whereas a small sample does not have enough power to give reliable results of the fit of the model. Therefore, in order to cover up for this restrictiveness of this test several other indicators are now used.

One of the indicators that is often considered very informative in measuring the fit of a model is the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). Similar to the Chi-square test, the RMSEA is a useful indicator in telling us how well the model that is being tested fits the population covariance matrix (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000). As with most of the indicators that will be discussed ahead, there was been substantial discrepancy regarding what is considered an acceptable RMSEA value. It is generally accepted that a value close to 0 at the lower limit, and lesser than 0.07 at the upper limit indicates a good fit (Steiger, 2007).

Another alternative that was created for the Chi-Square test was the Goodness-of-fit Index (GFI). The GFI uses the variance and covariance predicted by the model, and based on these indicates how closely the model can replicate the observed covariance matrix and can be considered similar to the R^2 values that are used for analysing multiple regression studies. The GFI is considered a relatively sensitive index that is affected by

sample size as well as the number of parameters. The cut-off for GFI is considered to be 0.9 (Miles and Shevlin, 1998). However, in the recent years the use of GFI as a model fit statistic has reduced and it has been replaced by the use of an Adjusted GFI or AGFI. The AGFI adjusts the value calculated for the GFI based upon the degrees of freedom in a model. The range and cut-off for AGFI as the same as those for GFI, that is between 0-1, and 0.9 respectively (Hu and Bentler, 1999).

Another index, which looks at the residuals of the sample covariance matrix and the hypothesised covariance matrix, and calculated the square root of the difference between the two is the Root Mean Square Residual (RMR). The values range from 0 to 1, with 0 representing a perfect fit. An acceptable fit is considered to be around 0.08, but ideally a well-fitting model should have an RMR or Standardised RMR (SRMR) of 0.05 or less (Hu and Bentler, 1999).

The Normed Fit Index (NFI) uses a null model that is a mode which assumes no correlations between any of the defined variables, and compares its χ^2 to that of the model being tested. As with most other statistics, the range for the NFI falls between 0 to 1, with a value closest to 1 indicating the best fit. Historically, a value of greater than 0.9 was considered to be a good fit, but recent literature suggests that NFI should be 0.95 or greater for the model to be a good fit (Bentler and Bonnet, 1980; Hu and Bentler, 1999). The NFI was reformed into the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) in order to overcome one of the key drawbacks of the NFI, which was sensitivity to sample size. The CFI, unlike the NFI, is reliable and performs well even when the sample size is low (Byrne, 1998; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The cut-off and range for this index is the same as the NFI, which is a value closest to 1 indicating a good fit, and a minimum cut-off of 0.90. This is, in fact, now considered to be one of the most highly reported model fit index due to lowest susceptibility to sample size (Fan et al, 1999).

It is quite evident that evaluating a good structural model is not an easy task, and

several different factors and indexes need to be examined, before the model can be justified and use to test the hypothesis of any study. For the purpose of this thesis, all of the above discussed goodness-of-fit indices will be discussed in the results section.

6.7.3 Advantages of SEM

As compared to several of techniques such as Multiple regression, Factor analysis and Principal components analysis, SEM provides the researcher greater flexibility for playing with the interaction between theory and data. Broadly speaking, SEM is a combination of multiple regression and factor analysis, although with some improvements over both these methods. SEM provides the researcher the ability to develop and test relationships between multiple independent and dependent variables. One of the key reasons for the popularity of this technique lies in its ability to explain and test the efficiency of a model by one all-inclusive method (Hair, 2006).

Another important advantage of SEM is its ability to develop unobservable Latent Variables, which are free of error (Chin, 1998). SEM is helpful in social science research particularly since most of the concepts studied are usually not directly observable. Furthermore, once the common variance between the various observed items that measure a Latent Variable has been calculated, the remaining unexplained variance is known as the measurement error. SEM has the ability to estimate these unexplained variance related errors and remove them so that the latent variables in the measurement model are free from any error. This is an important advantage as the absence of measurement error makes the results more reproducible between different studies (Ullman, 1996; Westland, 2010).

Finally, one of the key advantages is the ability of SEM to simultaneously measure relationships and test several hypotheses. Usually, several separate analysis would have to be conducted in order to test different aspects of a model using other traditional statistical techniques.

6.7.4 Criticisms of SEM

SEM has been portrayed as an absolute statistical technique, based on its efficiency and several advantages (Rahman, Shah and Rasli, 2015). However, the ability of SEM to test large models and the complexity associated with it come with their own challenges. MacCallum and Austin (2000) highlight several shortcomings of this technique as well.

Firstly, before the use of this technique for any data set it is essential to ensure that the data at hand complies with the assumptions that are a pre-requisite to using this technique. These include a large sample size, normality and linearity of the data. Matsueda and Press (2011) point out that the assumptions related to the multivariate normality and the large sample size are usually difficult to meet in practice. Secondly, as with most of the statistical techniques, SEM too faces issues regarding generalisability of the data, as the results are specific to the samples, variables and time-frame that have been defined in that particular study (Brown, 2015).

Another concern while using SEM for the confirmation of a model, is the presence of a Confirmation bias. This suggests that researchers get biased in favour of the model that is usually being tested (Greenwald et al, 1986). Furthermore, if the model being tested is based on incorrect assumptions or hypotheses, along with the presence of relatively small sample sizes and non-normal data, the chances are that there will be estimation problems and that the results will be unreliable. Another problem associated with this, is that researchers are quick to prove, disprove or modify existing models and theories based purely on empirical analysis following SEM analysis (Robles, 1996). The statistical analysis of models must be validated by running the model on different data sets in order to check the generalisability of the suggested model, as not all findings are always reliable.

Lastly, the output that follows a SEM analysis, is usually so large and complex that there are more often than not, issues associated with the interpretation of the data. For

checking the quality of the data, one does not rely on a single value or a single measure, but instead one has to consider several parameter estimates and global model fit indices amongst others (Werner and Engel, 2009). Additionally there are discrepancies regarding what is considered the best fit between the model and the data. Usually, a χ^2 test is used to measure the goodness of fit of a model. However, this is often considered too sensitive as even minor alterations in the data can lead to significant changes in the χ^2 (Steiger, 1990). As a result of this, several other parameters were included to assess the model fit, such as the Normed Fit Index (NFI). However, there is limited consensus on the cut-off values associated with each of these fit indices. While some suggest a value greater than 0.9 to be acceptable others consider the threshold to be at 0.8. As a result of this arbitrary nature, there is confusion regarding which data sets are good or bad model fits (Brannick, 1995; Shore and Tetrick, 1991). In order to overcome this, several individual indicators are analysed before deciding if the model fit is acceptable or not in this study. However, this continues to be one of the main criticisms of SEM.

However, despite its shortcomings the ability of SEM to develop error free latent variables that are extremely useful for capturing complex constructs such as Attitude, Perceptions and Behaviour cannot be ignored (Keith, 2014). The use of SEM in various management and psychology research studies has seen a dramatic increase over the past few years, predominantly due to its advanced capabilities over general linear modeling procedures such as Multiple Regression (MacCallum and Austin, 2000; Shook et al, 2003; Hair et al, 2011b). While SEM and Multiple Regression might be similar in the sense that they both are capable of testing relationships between variables, SEM is able to simultaneously look at relationships between multiple variables as well as deal with multi-level dependence relationships efficiently (Astrachan et al, 2014). The following section further highlights how these advantages of SEM make it a suitable analysis technique for this study.

6.7.5 Justification for the use of SEM for this study

The main reason behind the use of SEM for this study is the superior ability of this method as compared to other traditional multiple regression and factor analysis methods for testing the model that has been developed. Often research in the field of behavioural science and psychology does not deal with simple bivariate models, where relationships can be easily measured and calculated (Loehlin and Beaujean, 2017). Since, such studies usually include models that are not only multivariate but also made up of several unobserved variables, methods such as SEM were developed to address the gaps in traditional statistical techniques. Therefore, in this study, since the model that has been developed includes several latent variables, SEM as discussed above, is the most suitable method for describing the relationship between these large numbers of inter-related latent variables. Additionally, each of the hypothesis that have been drawn involve the role of mediating variables. Since each of the mediating variable have to be measured without the presence of any error, the only statistical method that can help to remove the error associated with latent variables is SEM. In this study, SEM will be used to test several competing theoretical models – involving partial, full and non-mediated models of the associated variables.

Quantitative analysis of entrepreneurial intentions has been undertaken by several studies in the past (Autio et al, 2001; Chen et al, 1998; Fayolle et al, 2006; Kolverein, 1996b; Zhao et al, 2005). However, several of these studies on entrepreneurial intentions have relied on linear regression to test these models, despite the threat of getting biased results (Chandler and Lyon, 2001). However, this study based on the work done by Linñan et al (2008) and Linñan and Chen (2009), makes use of structural equation models to test the relationship between the antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions as described by Ajzen (1991) as well as the five new constructs developed in this study.

SPSS-AMOS analysis software, which is one of the commonly used software for data analysis, has been used in this study to analyse the collected data (Chin, 1998).

6.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided a detailed discussion on the methodology that was followed for selecting samples and collecting data for the second study of this thesis. The chapter describes the random sampling that was conducted for collecting data for quantitative surveys from 2500 final year students from the University of Delhi. Following the collection of the data, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) has been described as the method for analysing the data. This chapter provides a brief discussion on the key concepts of SEM and provides a justification for the use of this method for analysing the collected data set. The next chapter will provide a detailed analysis and discussion on the results that were obtained from this data set.

CHAPTER 7

QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will discuss in detail the strategy that was followed for analysing the data obtained following the student surveys. The chapter will begin with developing the hypotheses that form the basis for this research. An analysis strategy will be provided and the results will be discussed in relation to existing knowledge on the role played by family in effecting the entrepreneurial intentions. The chapter will conclude by providing a model that suggests the role played by an individual's family in impacting the development of their entrepreneurial intentions.

7.2 HYPOTHESIS FORMATION

This study has aimed to identify and highlight family as an important factor, which has received relatively less importance, in the study of entrepreneurial intentions and their development. It is suggested that the family can affect the development of entrepreneurial intentions of individuals. In line with the family embeddedness perspective by Aldrich and Cliff (2003), this study also highlights that the decision to start an entrepreneurial venture is influenced to a large extent by the values, attitudes and norms towards entrepreneurship that are held by the various family members, and the family as a whole. Studies showing higher entrepreneurial intentions in children coming from families where one or both parents are entrepreneurs, add to the evidence towards the involvement of family in defining the intentions of their younger members (Zhao et al, 2005; Kickul et al, 2008; Bhageri and Pihie, 2010). Aldrich and Cliff (2003) and Kirkwood (2012) have argued that families in fact act as 'incubators' of the entrepreneurial spirit. Furthermore, apart from the attitudes and values, there are other factors within a family that can influence the

development of particular intentions in the individuals. These include the presence of financial resources, social and physical capital, changes and transitions to family systems such as divorces, and childbirth (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003). Thus, this indicates that it is not one specific aspect of the family that might play a role in the development of intentions, but in fact, family as an institution, in its entirety, can influence the entrepreneurial intentions. This idea was supported by previous studies where aspects of family such as the psychological support from parents, work experience and access to capital all have an effect on the entrepreneurial intentions of the younger generation (Dyer, 2006; Chua et al, 2009). This forms the basis of the first hypothesis where, based on the above discussion, it is suggested that the ‘Family’ can impact the development of entrepreneurial intentions of individuals.

H1: ‘Family’ has a direct positive effect on entrepreneurial intentions

Although it is well accepted that the impact one’s family can have on entrepreneurial intentions can be wide-ranging and spread out, in order to make the analysis of the data more structured, the literature was used to identify some key concepts that have been used to cover the various effects that ‘Family’ has in this study. Along with a review of the literature, ethnographic studies conducted in the first part of this study further helped in the identification of some more key concepts that were used to define the effect of family this study aims to highlight (See Chapter 5).

The concept of ‘Family’ in this first hypothesis, and in the others that follow, is meant to encapsulate different aspects of the institution as a whole that have been identified in this thesis. Some of these aspects were explored by Fayolle (2014) where he suggested that an individual’s family can influence entrepreneurship intentions via developing the right attitude and values, captured by the construct of ‘*Socialisation*’. This construct describes the process through which certain views, beliefs and attitudes are transmitted

through the family (Saporta, 2002). Empirical studies in the past have provided evidence to suggest that socialisation within families, in favour or against certain careers, has an impact on the aspirations and expectations of children with regards to that career (Barling, 1990; Barling, Kelloway and Bernermmann, 1991). The effect that socialisation has through the impact of past experiences of family members, and the presence of strong ties with family has previously been studied in relation to entrepreneurship and its effect on intentions (Sequiera et al, 2007; Lapita et al, 2012). In fact, the role of socialisation within the family has been shown to have an impact on developing a specific attitude or behaviour in relation to life style choices, deciding what types of work-roles to assume and social interaction amongst others (Hoge et al, 1982). Hence, its impact on developing intentions merits further research. The first hypothesis, 1(a) will test this relationship between socialisation and entrepreneurial intentions.

The support and encouragement provided by the family is captured by the construct '*Support and Encouragement*'. This constructs aims to capture the impact that the moral, psychological and financial support offered by the family, has on the development of intentions. Fayolle (2014) describes this as one of the key concepts that captures the main influence one's family can have on the development of entrepreneurial intentions. Previous research studies looking at cross-national comparisons show that families are often the main group providing support for entrepreneurship to young individuals (Altinay et al, 2012; Van Auken et al, 2006; Henderson and Robertson, 1999). Active encouragement provided by family members has also been shown to be an important predictor for the success of new businesses (Davidsson and Honig, 2003). The support that is provided by the family, often encourages the younger generation to try and follow new opportunities and ideas (Turker and Selcuk, 2008). Hypothesis 1(b) will test this relationship between support and encouragement and the development of intentions.

Finally, the last construct defined by Fayolle (2014) was that family acts as the main source of any experience towards entrepreneurship that young individuals receive. Family is usually the first place where young individuals receive their first experience relating to entrepreneurial activities – often by participating in entrepreneurial activities undertaken by some family member. Experience here refers to the first exposure to entrepreneurship as a career. The presence of strong role models within the family is also an important aspect of this experience for young individuals. Previous studies by Harrison and Hart (1992) and Blackburn and Curran (1993) have highlighted the positive impact that family role models can have on the intentions of young individuals to start a business, especially when parents have previously been involved in entrepreneurial activities. The impact of past experience relating to entrepreneurship that is gained from an individual's family is key for driving the development of intentions (Drennan, Kennedy and Renfrow, 2005; Linãn and Chen, 2009). The construct '*Experience and Experimentation*' in this study aims to capture this aspect of the family, and its influence on entrepreneurial intentions will be tested in Hypothesis 1 (c).

Furthermore, two more concepts that seemed critical for capturing the overarching influence that family has on entrepreneurial intentions were identified via the ethnographic studies as discussed in the previous chapter. As highlighted in the ethnographies the family 'polices' the behaviour of each of its members, in order to make them conform to an image that is considered suitable by the family and the society that they live in (Tagiuri and Davis, 1996). It is believed that each individual is a reflection of the family, its values and beliefs. Thus, actions of all the individuals within the family unit will reflect upon the entire family as a whole. This is especially important in cultures where family hierarchy and respect for family is strong, such as in the Indian context. Hence, anyone acting against what is generally considered acceptable by the family, is considered to be putting the entire family's respect and reputation at stake (Medora, 2007; Sharma and Rao, 2000). This idea

is similar to that previously explored by Bagozzi and Lee (2002) where they demonstrated how individuals are compelled to act in a socially acceptable manner in order to live up to and keep up the 'collective self-esteem' of the social group. The impact that this need to conform can have on entrepreneurial intentions is being captured by the construct '*Image*' in this study, which refers to the pressure on the individual to uphold the 'family-identity' and maintain the status quo by continuing on a path that is acceptable and relatable to all individuals within the family. This also includes maintaining the identity of the family, based on how the family is viewed by those external to it. The direct effect that image can have on entrepreneurial intentions will be tested in Hypothesis 1(d).

The last construct, '*Family Support Structure*', was developed once again after ethnographic studies on Indian families where it was noticed that an additional form of support, both emotional and in some cases financial, was offered by siblings to one another and was also seen where the mothers were working. This was different from the support and encouragement, as discussed previously, as this refers particularly to the support coming from older siblings and from working mothers as compared to housewives. Schindehutte et al (2003) have suggested that the presence of working mothers makes the offspring more independent and achievement oriented, which could be important in the development of entrepreneurial intentions. Additionally, in cases when the parents were incapable of providing financial support to their children, the youngest off-springs may receive additional support from their older siblings, who could encourage them to follow entrepreneurial career despite the inability of their parents to do so. This relationship will be tested in Hypothesis 1(e).

Therefore, five hypotheses were formed that will be tested using the model developed under this chapter. Each of these five hypotheses capture, independent aspects of 'Family' and together they aim to completely capture the influence that family can have on entrepreneurial intentions.

H1a: A greater amount of Socialisation to entrepreneurship will have a direct positive relationship with Entrepreneurial Intentions

H1b: A greater amount of Support and Encouragement towards entrepreneurship will have a direct positive relationship with Entrepreneurial Intentions

H1c: A greater amount of entrepreneurial Experience and Experimentation will have a direct positive relationship with Entrepreneurial Intentions

H1d: A greater need to conform to Image will have a direct positive relationship with Entrepreneurial Intentions

H1e: A greater amount of ancillary moral support and family structure will have a direct positive relationship with Entrepreneurial Intentions

Moving forward, the following set of hypotheses were developed to test **how** family can have an impact on the development of entrepreneurial intentions – it was decided that a mediation analysis, looking at the role of personal attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, as potential mediators would be suitable. As will be discussed in the analysis section in some more detail, since the researcher was interested in understanding the different mechanisms or ways in which family can influence intentions, a mediation analysis was thought to be most useful. However, if the aim of the research was to understand specific situations or conditions under which family influences intentions, then a moderation analysis would have been chosen.

As per the theory of planned behaviour, the desirability an individual has towards a particular behaviour is one of the key factors that drives the development of intentions towards that behaviour (Bagozzi, 1992; Armitage and Connor, 2001). If an individual has a favourable outlook towards the behaviour, then the intentions towards performing the behaviour are expected to be higher (Veciana, Aponte and Urbano, 2005; Ajzen, 1991). The Personal Attitude component of the TPB is meant to capture this desirability towards the behaviour in question, in this case, Entrepreneurship (Ajzen, 1991; Krueger and

Carsrud, 2003). The disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably, along with the presence of a positive or negative orientation towards a behaviour is developed overtime in individuals, and is usually accompanied by some psychological reinforcement from their surrounding environments (Dalege et al, 2016; Fazio, 1995). Therefore, along with the study of Attitude towards a behaviour, it is important to study that factors that lead to the development of that specific Attitude. As suggested in this study, and several others in the past, an individual's family is key in the development of either positive or negative attitudes towards a behaviour (White et al, 2007; Kundu and Rani, 2008; Gupta et al, 2009). Especially when it comes to career or occupational behaviours, 'vocational' capital is considered one of the main 'inheritance' that is passed down generations in a family (Aldrich et al, 1998). Hence, the second set of hypothesis conceptualise this relationship by suggesting that the effect that family, as measured by its five components, has on intentions may be mediated by personal attitude.

H2: Personal Attitude mediates the influence of 'Family' on the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals.

This hypothesis will be tested by evaluating how personal attitude may mediate the relationship between each of the five components of family with entrepreneurial intentions. Fayolle (2014) suggested that the positive or negative attitude towards entrepreneurship can be influenced by the past experiences that some family members may have had with relation to entrepreneurship. For example, if some family members had a negative experience relating to entrepreneurship, the chances are that other family members will develop a negative attitude towards entrepreneurial behaviour, which will then get transmitted to the young family members via discussion of negative anecdotes and stories of failure. This process of 'Socialisation' of young individuals, where they are exposed views and opinions of their family members begins at home (Parada and Viladas,

2010). Hence, it is justified to assume that the process of socialisation will influence the development of entrepreneurial intentions via its ability to modulate the personal attitude of individuals. This will be tested in Hypothesis 2 (a).

The support and encouragement offered by family members is unarguably one of the most important factors that can determine whether young individuals approach certain behaviours with a positive or negative attitude. This support, which can be either financial, psychological or vocational, forms the main network on which young individuals can depend on and look for advice and encouragement. This is in line with previous suggestions in the literature highlighting that the presence of family support is linked to the development of a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship (Dyer, 1992; Carr and Sequira, 2007). Hence it can be hypothesised that the effect that Support and encouragement can have on entrepreneurial intentions may in fact be mediated by the development of a specific attitude towards entrepreneurship. This will be tested in Hypothesis 2 (b).

Furthermore, the right attitude and skill towards a specific behaviour is developed in young individuals following the time that they spend working alongside their parents. This experience and exposure to specific careers, especially entrepreneurship, from an early age are crucial for the developing positive associations and attitude towards that behaviour, and hence stronger entrepreneurial intentions (Zhao et al, 2005; Harris and Gibson, 2008). Therefore, the effect that the experience and experimentation provided by the family has on the attitude, and thus the entrepreneurial intentions, will be tested by Hypothesis 2(c).

The desirability and attitude towards a particular type of behaviour is often determined based on the notion of a certain 'Image' that individuals want to convey. So if the need to conform to a certain image is strong, it can be seen that desirability towards behaviours that will help to uphold and respect that image will also be high. This will also

be true in cases where the idea of self-image has been engrained in the minds of young individuals by their family, based on what the family thinks is acceptable (Perugini and Bagozzi, 2004). Hence, the need to fit into the image mould as formed by one's family can have an effect on the development of entrepreneurial intentions by the mediating effect of personal attitude. This relationship will be tested in Hypothesis 2 (d).

Finally, the additional support that is available to some individuals due to the structure of their families – that is by the presence of siblings, presence of a working mother leads to the development of certain attitudes and skills that may be lacking in individuals that grew up in differently structured families. The effect that this additional support and structure has on developing a positive attitude, and hence intentions will be measured in the last hypothesis for this set, Hypothesis 2 (e).

To summarise, the relationship that family has with entrepreneurial intentions can be captured by the manner in which each of the individual concepts of family from this study are being mediated by personal attitude. The set of hypothesis that have been developed to test this are as below:

H2a: Personal attitude mediates the effect that Socialisation has on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H2b: Personal Attitude mediates the effect of Support and Encouragement towards entrepreneurship on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H2c: Personal Attitude mediates the effect of Experience and Experimentation on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H2d: Personal Attitude mediates the effect of Image on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H2e: Personal Attitude mediates the effect of ancillary moral support and family structure on Entrepreneurial Intentions

The next set of hypotheses will aim to conceptualise the role that one of the main variables within the TPB model, Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC), has on the development of entrepreneurial intentions and its relationship with the various constructs of family as defined above. PBC, which stems from the concept of self-efficacy of the Social Cognition Theory, suggests that an individual is most likely to have positive intentions for and participate in behaviours that they consider to be most achievable (Bandura, 1997). However, limited research has been conducted on trying to identify how individuals develop this perception of feasibility with respect to behaviours such as entrepreneurship (Fini et al, 2009). Previously, research undertaken by Fini et al (2009) identified certain antecedents to PBC, and showed that these can be grouped into two factors, environmental support and environmental influence. They included factors such as government funding schemes, tax benefits and physical infrastructure amongst other factors that might influence the PBC of individuals. Following this our third hypothesis would bring together some of these previous findings to suggest a role for family in shaping the intentions of an individual by effecting their perceived behavioural control.

H3: Perceived Behavioural Control mediates the influence of 'Family' on the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals.

In order to capture the complete relationship that exists between PBC and family, once again each of the five aspects of family will be measured individually. The socialisation that results due to the presence of entrepreneurial parents is considered to be one of the key factors responsible for the development of positive self-efficacy towards entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial behaviour (Zhao et al, 2005; Kickul et al, 2008; Bagheri and Pihie, 2010). The presence of entrepreneurial parents familiarises the child with entrepreneurial behaviour, and this familiarity influences the perception of the child, making entrepreneurial behaviour look easy and achievable. Additionally, the perceived

behavioural control of an individual has also been shown to be affected by the past experiences of those who are close to the individual, such as family members and significant others (Boyd and Voziskis, 1994). If a parent or sibling had a negative experience relating to entrepreneurship, it is likely that the child might consider entrepreneurial behaviour to be difficult to carry out, this uncertainty would have an impact on the PBC. Hence it can be hypothesised that the socialisation that individuals are exposed to within their family has an effect on their entrepreneurial intentions via its ability to positively affect their perceived control over entrepreneurial behaviour. This relationship will be tested in Hypothesis 3(a). Similar to previous research that suggest the importance of instilling confidence in individuals regarding their ability to perform a certain behaviour in order to positively influence their perceived control over the behaviour, this study aims to highlight that the inspiration, encouragement and supportive environment within an individual's family can augment entrepreneurial intentions providing a deeper and stronger sense of control in those individuals regarding entrepreneurial behaviours (Zampetakis, 2008; Chen et al, 1998; Beck et al, 2005; Foo et al, 2005). As a result of this increased sense of feasibility, there is expected to be a positive impact on the entrepreneurial intentions of these individuals. This will be tested by Hypothesis 3(b).

One of the most important roles that an individual's family can play in developing their entrepreneurial intentions is providing them with skills and experience relating to entrepreneurship (Basu and Virick, 2008). Prior exposure to entrepreneurship, usually as a result of the experience gained by the young individual in the family business, or other ventures supported by the family, is one of the main factors that can positively influence the self-efficacy and perceived feasibility of an individual towards a behaviour (Krueger, 1993; Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000). This exposure and experience that is provided

by the family, its relationship with PBC and its impact on the intentions of an individual will be tested by Hypothesis 3(c).

The extent of self-efficacy and control that individuals have towards a specific behaviour to a large extent can be impacted by the over-all 'Image' or 'self-identity' that individuals are trying to promote and conform to. Hagger et al (2007) suggest that an individual's self-identity is driven by two distinct factors – one related to their perceived social roles and the other driven by more private ambitions and identity. Both these aspects come into play when decisions or plan to act are being taken by the individual and can influence the development of control beliefs. Hence, individuals that feel the need to fit into a specific image will be expected to have stronger perceived sense of control regarding that particular behaviour, and this is expected to impact the development of intentions. This study suggests that in cases where individuals consider entrepreneurial jobs because of the need to conform to an 'image' that is portrayed and promoted by their families, they would ideally also feel that they have more control and confidence over their entrepreneurial capabilities, hence leading to stronger intentions. This will be tested in Hypothesis 3(d).

Furthermore, the ancillary support, both financial and emotional, that arises as a result of working mothers and/or the presence of siblings, can further add to the confidence and overall feeling of internal control towards a behaviour in the individual. Hence the presence of this extra support and structure within the family is hypothesised to be positively linked to improved entrepreneurial intentions via its ability to improve the perceived control an individual has towards the behaviour. This relationship is tested in Hypothesis 3(e).

In sum, the relationship between family and entrepreneurial intentions will be tested by analysing the relationship between each of the individual concepts of family with

Perceived Behavioural Control. Based on the discussion above, the following set of hypothesis have been developed to test this.

H3a: Perceived Behavioural Control mediates the effect that Socialisation has on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H3b: Perceived Behavioural Control mediates the effect of Support and Encouragement towards entrepreneurship on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H3c: Perceived Behavioural Control mediates the effect of Experience and Experimentation on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H3d: Perceived Behavioural Control mediates the effect of Image on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H3e: Perceived Behavioural Control mediates the effect of ancillary moral support and family structure on Entrepreneurial Intentions

Finally, the last set of hypothesis will aim to capture one of the most controversial constructs of the TPB, the Subjective Norms factor and draw out its relationship with the various constructs of Family (Armitage and Connor, 2001). Despite its inclusion in the Theory of Planned Behaviour, very few studies have tested the impact that Subjective Norms have on Intentions (Kolvereid and Isakan, 2006; Tkachev and Kolvereid, 1999). One of the main reasons this factor performs poorly as compared to the other two constructs is because it has usually been tested using a single item scale – as a result of which its full potential has not been realised (Latimer and Ginis, 2005). The subjective norms factor, as designed by Ajzen (1991) was meant to capture the influence that significant individuals in their environment and surroundings can have on intentions. However, in this study it is suggested that these significant individuals might in fact play a role by mediating the impact that other exogenous factors have on entrepreneurial intentions. Hence, the final hypothesis will aim to encapsulate how the subjective norms

of significant others can mediate the impact that different aspects of an individual's family have on the development of entrepreneurial intentions.

H4: Subjective Norms mediate the influence of 'Family' on the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals.

The process of socialisation within the family is responsible for passing on the norms and values of society, and what is considered acceptable or not to its members (Haralambos and Heald, 1980; Whiston and Keller, 2004). These views, beliefs and opinions are bound to impact the development of intentions of individuals over time. The effect of this process of socialisation on intentions can be expected to be mediated by the perceptions that individuals have about what is considered socially acceptable or not. Hence the presence of positive past experiences and positive role models relating to entrepreneurship within the family will impact the perception that the individual has about the social acceptance of that behaviour and hence impact their intentions towards performing it. This relationship will be tested by Hypothesis 4(a).

The presence of a supportive and encouraging environment towards a specific behaviour, entrepreneurship in this case, will impact the development of entrepreneurial intentions in individuals by leading to the belief that the behaviour is socially accepted and that significant people in the surrounding of that individual have positive perceptions regarding the behaviour. This is similar to the idea that was proposed by Bandura (1977) where he suggested that significant individuals through their support and encouragement, can impact the degree to which their opinions are considered important to the subjects. Hence, Hypothesis 4(b) will test how the impact of support and encouragement by an individual's family on intentions is mediated by Subjective norms.

Additionally, having prior work experience relating to entrepreneurship, especially when the experience stems from the exposure to and experience gained from family

ventures, is bound to influence the perceptions that individuals have about the social acceptability of the behaviour, and hence have an impact on the development of intentions as well. While working alongside family members and friends, the positive or negative experiences and the discussion of anecdotes is expected to impact the individuals' perception of whether those in his/her close surrounding consider that job in a 'positive' and socially acceptable manner or not. Hence, the next hypothesis, H4(c), will test whether subjective norms mediate the impact that experience has on the development of entrepreneurial intentions. The subjective norms, or the perception that an individual has about the behaviour being socially accepted, is responsible for fulfilling the need to fit into the 'family-identity' and the need to conform or fit into an image that is considered socially acceptable by members within the family, and those external to it as well. Hence if an individual feels that a certain type of behaviour is highly desirable and looked up to by the significant people in his life, then he is likely to develop a positive 'image' for that behaviour and attempt to fit into that mould. This is expected to have a positive impact on the intentions towards the behaviour as well. The penultimate hypothesis, H 4(d) formulated to test this relationship, suggests that the subjective norms mediate the impact that 'Image' has on entrepreneurial intentions. Finally, similar to how the presence of support and encouragement can suggest positive subjective norms, the structure of the family, in terms of the presence of ancillary emotional, structural and financial support that comes as a result of working mothers and/or the presence of siblings can provide individuals confidence that the significant individuals in their surroundings have positive opinions regarding that particular behaviour, and hence will impact their intentions as well. Hence, the final hypothesis, H 4(e), which will be tested describes the relationship between ancillary support and family structure with entrepreneurial intentions, and the mediating role of subjective norms on this relationship.

To conclude, the various constructs of family can be hypothesised to have an impact on entrepreneurial intentions, and the relationship is suggested to be mediated by the subjective norms factor of the theory of planned behaviour. The following set of hypothesis test the relationships described above:

H4a: Subjective Norm mediates the effect that Socialisation has on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H4b: Subjective Norm mediates the effect of Support and Encouragement towards entrepreneurship on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H4c: Subjective Norm mediates the effect of Experience and Experimentation on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H4d: Subjective Norm mediates the effect of Image on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H4e: Subjective Norm mediates the effect of ancillary moral support and family structure on Entrepreneurial Intentions

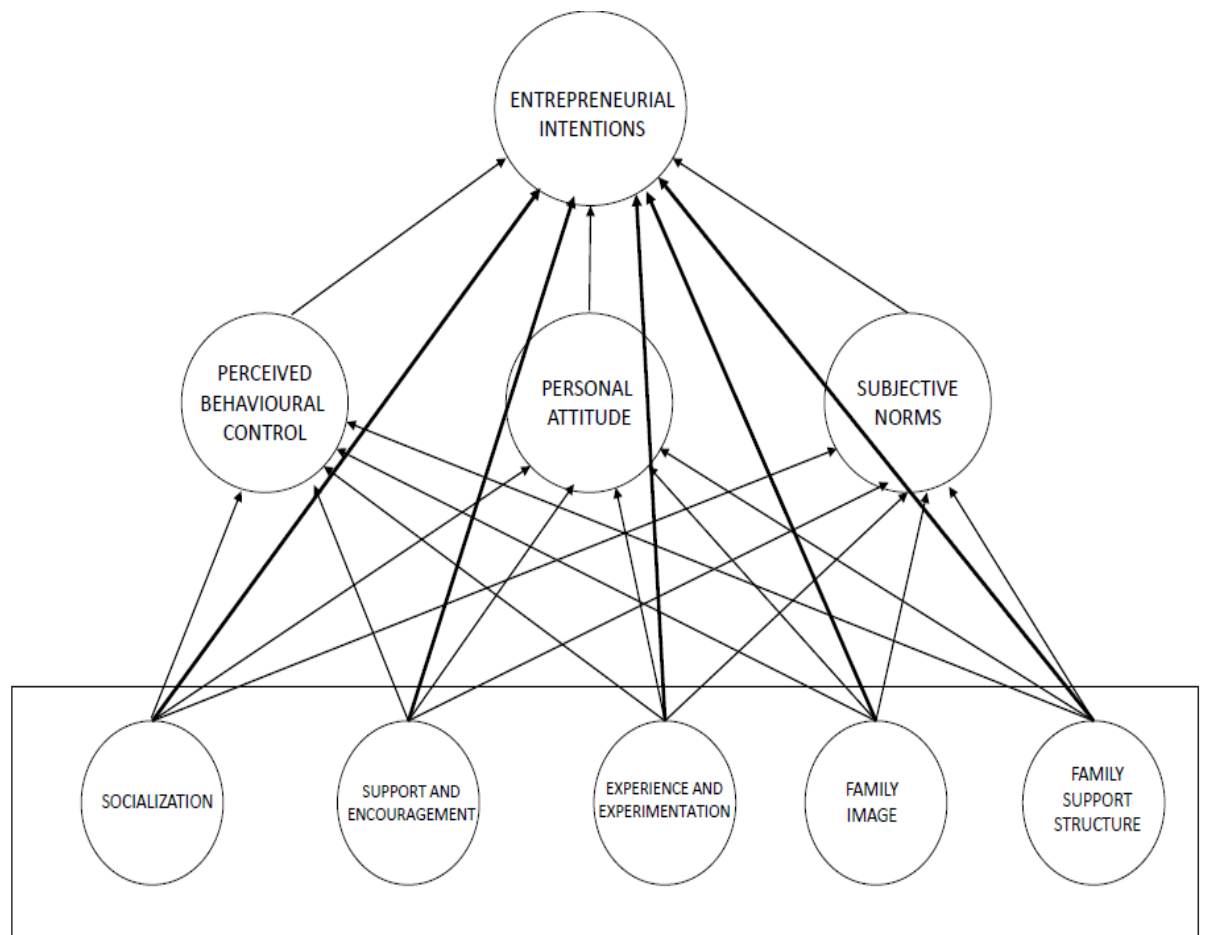


Figure 7.1: Hypothesised empirical model

7.3 DATA ANALYSIS STRATEGY

The first step before beginning the analysis of the data is to provide a demographic description of the sample that was obtained. Table 7.1 provides a summary of the details of the sample for this study.

Characteristic	Percentage
Gender	
Male	73.2% (n=822)
Female	26.8% (n=301)
Age	21.8± 3.3 years
Marital Status	
Married	7.5% (n=85)
Single	92.5% (n=1037)
Major Field of Study	
Biological Science	0.4% (n=4)
Social Science	2.9% (n=33)
Management	43.3% (n=486)
Commerce	5% (n=56)
Medicine	1.5% (n=17)
Engineering	39% (n=438)
Annual Household Income	
Up to 99,999 Rupees	5.3% (n=62)
100,000-499,999 Rupees	22.5% (n=261)
500,000-999,999 Rupees	26.7% (n=309)
1,000,000 + Rupees	21.4% (n=248)

TABLE 7.1: Profile of student sample

Notes: 21% of respondents chose not to reveal their family income. 7.9% students chose 'other' in the field of study. These were either from the field of Architecture or nautical science.

The sample was found to consist majorly of male students (73%), and the female students were found to be a minority in the sample collected. While this difference in the gender may seem to be biased, it is in line with the overall demographic make-up of the country. As per the All India Survey on Higher Education (2013), the enrollment of female students is lower than that of male students, and females constitute only 44% of the total enrollments each year. Additionally, this is also in line with some of the previous research on entrepreneurial intentions where surveys amongst students indicate a higher percentage

of male respondents as compared to females (Zhao et al, 2005; Shinnar, Pruette and Toney, 2010). Additionally, the Male to Female ratio is found to be higher in engineering and management related fields (Goel, 2007). Since a large proportion of the students in this study belong to the fields of management and engineering, the pronounced gender gap was understandable.

The average age of the students was 21.8 years. Additionally, since most of the students were in the final year of university, 92.5% of the sample was unmarried and only 7.5% of them were married. Other studies that have used student samples for measuring entrepreneurship report a similar age range as well (Turker and Selcuk, 2008; Autio et al, 2001; Basu and Virick, 2008).

In terms of the fields of study, it was noticed that the sample consisted of mostly students belonging to the Engineering (39%) and Management (43.3%) fields. Other fields of study that were represented in the sample include Medicine (1.5%), Commerce (5%), Social Science (2.9%) and Biological Science (0.4%). One of the reasons for this is that out of the random sample of colleges that were chosen for the study, 2 of the colleges were specialising in only Engineering and Management courses, as a result of this a larger proportion of the students belonged to this field. Additionally, it can also be hypothesised that students from the fields of engineering and management are more likely to be interested in entrepreneurial careers, and hence were more likely to agree to fill out the questionnaire.

Finally, an important aspect of the sample was the range of the financial backgrounds that the sample belonged to. The average salary in India, as per World Bank (2013) estimates was \$1500 (£1200). 66% of Indian households earn less than £9600 per annum. Also, it is important to point out that the average household income in New Delhi is almost three times the national average (Economic Survey 2012-13, Govt. of NCT of Delhi). In the sample for this study, 5.3% of the sample were under Rs. 99,999 (£1180).

22.5% were between Rs. 100,000 and Rs. 499,999 (£5900), 26.7% were between Rs 500,000 and Rs, 999,999 (£11800) and the remaining 21.4% were above Rs 1000,000 (£11800).

Moving ahead with the analysis, there are several different ways in which SEM can be approached. For this thesis, it has been decided to adopt a four-step approach as suggested by Mulaik and Millsap (2000). The four steps required to successfully complete SEM are as follows:

1. The most initial step is the development of a measurement model. This is carried out by conducting an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). The aim here is to be able to identify latent variables or factors that emerge out of the observed items.
2. This is followed by conducting a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) in order to confirm the measurement model that is produced in the first step by confirming the relationships that exist between the indicator and the extracted latent variables.
3. The measurement model is then converted into a structural model by drawing out the relationships that are hypothesised between the various latent variables.
4. The structural model is finally confirmed by ensuring it fits all the minimum requirements of an acceptable model fit. This model can then be used for testing the various hypothesis that have been developed in the study.

Following this order of steps, the next section will discuss the EFA.

7.3.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

EFA is a very widely used statistical technique, especially in Social science research. It has been suggested that in cases where the study lacks the presence of a clear theoretical model, it is essential to conduct an EFA prior to the CFA (Costello and Osborne, 2005). Factor analysis is used for identifying underlying similarities and common variances and covariances in a particular set of observed variables and then grouping them together based on these in order to develop more rounded and comprehensive latent variables (Loehlin, 1998). Once observed variables have been used to collect data, factor analysis techniques can be used to either *confirm* the assumptions that have been made about certain observed variables predicting the latent variable, or can be used for *exploring* the gathered data, and highlighting factors or latent variables that seem to emerge from the observed variables. The primary rationale of an EFA is to find a model that will fit the data from the observed variables best, and one that will be most suited to carry on using for the development of structural models and hypothesis testing (Cudeck, 2000).

Apart from exploring the number of factors that can be extracted from the data, EFA also identifies which observed variables are the best indicators of a particular factor by providing factor loadings for each observed variable (Suhr, 2006). The higher the factor loading, the more certain the researcher can be that the particular variable is measuring the factor. Also, the correlation between the different factors can be tested under EFA. Conducting an EFA requires the researcher to consider 3 key issues regarding the data and its analysis. These are firstly deciding how the factors will be extracted, secondly deciding which of the extracted factors to retain for the model and finally deciding how to rotate the factors so as to arrive at the best solution. The decisions taken for each of these three points are key to ensure that the data is interpreted accurately and the reliable theory is developed (Osborne and Costello, 2009; Suhr, 2006; Loehlin, 1998).

7.3.1.1. Factor Extraction Method

The literature widely discusses two main methods for the extraction of factors from a set of data (Osborne and Costello, 2009; Kline, 2014). These are either using Principle Component Analysis (PCA) or using Factor Analysis. Broadly speaking, PCA is one of the most commonly used techniques in the literature for extraction of factors, especially due to it being the default method of factor extraction on most of the software packages that are used (Fabrigar et al, 1999; MacCullum and Tucker, 1991). There is considerable debate regarding the suitability of PCA as a factor extraction method and several scholars believe that it is not a true factor extraction method and hence should not be used (MacCullum and Tucker, 1991; Mulaik, 1990; Widaman, 1993). PCA is considered to be predominantly only a data reduction method and does not consider any underlying effect of the latent variables (Ford et al, 1986). Factor Analysis on the other hand is considered a more superior method for extracting factors. Factor analysis identifies latent variables based on how they cause covariation in the observed variables, and hence is more effective in picking up underlying effects and commonalities in the data (Floyd and Widaman, 1995).

Factor analysis has several different types of techniques that can be applied for the extraction of factors. For a set of normally distributed data, it has been suggested that the use of 'Maximum likelihood' method is most appropriate (Fabrigar et al, 1999). This is a comprehensive technique that allows the software to calculate significance of the factor loadings as well as correlations between the factors (Osborne and Costello, 2005). Based on this, in this study, Factor Analysis by utilising the Maximum Likelihood technique has been followed for extraction of factors from the complete data set.

7.3.1.2. Retention of Factors

Usually extraction following factor analysis results in several factors being extracted by the software. The next question that the researcher is then faced with is how many of those factors should be retained (Ford, MacCullum and Tait, 1986). This is an important step, as retaining too many factors may lead to dilution of the result and development of a weaker mode. Especially from the perspective of theory development, retention of too many factors may lead to the variables being too diffuse and spread out, causing them to have low significance and factor loadings (Patil et al, 2007). However, retaining fewer factors may result in the model losing some important characteristics due to components or factors being combined. There it is essential that factor retention is conducted with utmost caution (Patil et al, 2007; Velicaer and Jackson, 1990).

In order to decide how many factors to retain, the most common method that is used and is also the default in most of the statistical packages, is dependent on the eigenvalues (Osborne and Costello, 2009). This is known as the Kaiser Criteria and it says that all factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 should be retained (Hayton et al, 2004). Once again, one of the most commonly used methods due to its simplicity and ease of use, this method is not devoid of problems either. Usually, retaining factors based on eigenvalues leads to too many factors being retained. There is growing consensus in the literature that this may be one of the least accurate technique for deciding factor retention (Velicer and Jackson, 1990).

Another commonly used method is using a Scree plot to visualise the different factors being produced. The Scree plot is a graph showing the various extracted factors based on their eigenvalues. The plot is examined for sudden breaks and bends in the graph. Major factors that are expected to account for maximum variation can usually be seen as resulting in steep drops in the graphs (Jolliffe, 2002). In order to identify how many factors to retain, a bend or break in the scree plot is noted following which no more major

variations are seen, and the curve is relatively flat (Hayton et al, 2004). All the factors above such point are believed to be responsible for the maximum variance in the data and can be considered for retention. However, this technique has its drawbacks as well. Identification of the right point following which the curve flattens out can be subjective, especially when the variance caused by the factors is not very extreme and the curve flattens out gradually (Hayton et al, 2004; Osborne and Costello, 2009).

Finally, since in most of the cases, the researcher has some *a priori* knowledge regarding the number of factors that are expected to be formed from a particular data set, it is also acceptable to forcefully extract those many limited number of factors using the software. These can then be cross checked by using other methods.

For the purpose of this study, a combination of all the three methods above was used. Eigenvalues and the scree test were used initially to narrow down on the number of factors that could be retained. Since, as per the hypothesised model the data should resolve into 9 factors, these were forcefully extracted by restricting the number of factors that the data would be resolved into to the number of desired factors, that is 9 (Further details in results section 7.4).

7.3.1.3. Rotation of Factors

Once the data has been extracted and factors have been chosen for retention, the data usually still requires some amount of resolving or ‘cleaning-up’. Rotating the data can help to clarify and simplify the data so that it is easily analysable. Rotating the data does not change the actual analysis and does not cause any change in the factor loadings. There are two types of rotations that can be used – one is Orthogonal and the other is Oblique rotation (Kieffer, 1998).

Orthogonal rotation methods that include the commonly used Varimax technique, along with others such as Quatrimax and Equamax. This type of rotation leads to the

development of uncorrelated factors (Abdi, 2003). However, in Social sciences very rarely do completely uncorrelated and independent factors exist in the study of fields such as behaviour and attitude. Therefore, although very common, the use of orthogonal rotation is not a suitable method to use for rotation of social science data sets (Fabrigar et al, 1999).

Oblique rotation methods such as promax, direct oblimin and quartimin generate factors that are correlated to each other and hence are good options for social science research. It is expected to produce more reliable, as well as more consistent and reproducible results (Abdi, 2003). For this study, promax oblique rotation has been used to evaluate the latent variables and the correlation between each of the developed latent variables (DeCoster, 1998). Once the EFA led to the generation of latent variables, and the various observed factors that measured each of those variables were defined, the next step was to check the validity and reliability of each of the variables before they model was used for further analysis (Osborne and Costello, 2009).

7.3.2 Validity and Reliability Measures

The internal validity refers to the extent to which the questionnaire is measuring what it is expected to measure and ensures that the results of the data are truly representative (Trochim and Donnelley, 2007). Validity in a questionnaire can be measured in two ways:

Content validity: This ensures the extent to which the question covers the topic or issue being investigated. This can be usually validated by conducting a thorough literature review and by discussions with colleagues. To ensure validity of the content of the questionnaire in this study, a list of all the questions/items from the questionnaire in a random order, along with the each of the 5 new measures being tested (socialisation,

experience and experimentation, support and encouragement, family support structure and image) was sent to 3 academics and 4 PhD students from the university. They were asked to organise each of the items under the measures that they felt the items would fit best under. The results of this were compared to the developed questionnaire to maintain the validity of the questions. A similar approach was used by Fini et al (2009) where they tested their questionnaire on a panel of experts and used their feedback and comments to further improve the questionnaire.

Construct validity: This refers to the certainty of the measurement of the intended constructs by the specific questions. Construct validity is usually divided into Convergent and Discriminant Validity (Drost, 2011). Either of these alone is not sufficient to fully establish the construct validity of a questionnaire and hence have to be measured individually for each study (Hussein, 2015). **Convergent validity** means that constructs that are meant to be related to each other theoretically are indeed related to each other in the model being tested. Additionally, **Discriminant validity** means that constructs that are not meant to be theoretically linked to each other, are not in fact linked to each other in the tested model (Trochim and Donnelley, 2007).

Reliability of any study refers to the extent to which the data obtained is consistent. This means that the outcome of a particular questionnaire must be consistently maintained even if the sample is changed, the conditions are changed and even when it is administered by different investigators (Rossi, Wright and Anderson, 2013). One of the most common ways of checking the reliability of a questionnaire is by **test re-test**. As the name suggests, this refers to administering the same questionnaire twice to the same set of respondents and ensuring that the results are consistent each time. However, this is relatively difficult to conduct as most respondents are reluctant to answer the same questionnaire again (Saunders et al, 2009; Trochim and Donnelley, 2007). Therefore, the reliability was measured by checking the internal consistency of the questionnaire.

Internal consistency of the questionnaire is a better way of ensuring the reliability of questionnaire. This measures the extent to which responses to questions within a subgroup are correlated to each other (Stevens, 2012). The average correlation between various items for a specific construct usually accurately represents the correlation of all of the items to the construct. This is measured by calculating the **Cronbach's Alpha**, where a value close to 1 represents a highly reliable test and a value close to 0 refers to low levels of reliability (Peterson and Kim, 2013). Cronbach's alpha is a commonly used statistical test for ensuring the internal consistency of the questionnaire and has been used by several studies measuring entrepreneurial intentions (Linãn et al, 1998; Linãn et al, 2008; Linãn and Chen, 2009). For this study as well, the reliability was measured by evaluation the Cronbach's alpha for each of the constructs tested.

7.4 RESULTS OF EFA, VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY MEASURES

For the initial EFA all the items on the questionnaire were subjected to dimension reduction (Yong and Pearce, 2013). The factors were extracted based on eigenvalues. The Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) factor is used to measure how suitable the data set is for factor analysis. Usually a value greater than 0.7 is considered to be adequate for Factor Analysis (Kaiser, 1985; Hair et al, 1999). The tested data set had a KMO value of 0.883, making it suitable for further factor analysis. In addition to this, the Bartlett's test of Sphericity was also conducted as a measure of the adequacy of the sample. The Bartlett's test of Sphericity must be significant, that is less than 0.05, in order for the data to be considered suitable for data analysis (Snedecor and Cochran, 1989). As indicated in the table below, both the KMO and the Bartlett's test suggested adequacy of the sample for further analysis.

Following this, the data was subjected to dimension reduction in order to identify the factors that all the items were separating into. For this purpose, the data was reduced based on eigenvalues and the cumulative variance explained by the factors that are identified. Eigenvalues are used to judge the variance that is explained by the extracted factors. So, factors that have the highest eigenvalue have the maximum variance. Factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were considered, and the aim was to extract factors so that maximum amount of variance in the data is explained by the extracted factors. Based on this preliminary stage, SPSS extracted 22 factors that explained a total of 68% of the variance in the data (Refer to Appendix 3 – Scree plot and exploratory factor analysis).

This initial dimension reduction highlighted some potential issues and it was evident that the items that were produced were not all loading onto the variables they had been hypothesised to measure and there were some cross-loadings. One of the most problematic were the items that were hypothesised to measure the construct Family Support and Structure (FSS). The items for this factor were loading, lowly, onto 4 different factors. When these items were examined further and the reliability of the scale for

measuring FSS were identified, it was found that the Cronbach alpha, which is the accepted measure for reliability of a scale, was only 0.510. This was deemed to be relatively low as literature defines that for a scale to be considered reliable the Cronbach alpha should be more than 0.7 for newly developed scales (Linán and Chen, 2009; Nunnally, 1987). However, as demonstrated by Peterson (1994), Cronbach alpha's of lower than 0.7 may at times also be acceptable. But despite following a relatively lenient cut-off of 0.6 for the Cronbach alpha, FSS still did not meet the requirements for a reliable scale and as a result of this, the items relating to FSS were removed from the initial EFA.

Having removed FSS, when the EFA was conducted again, SPSS now extracted 19 factors from all the items that was tested. It was observed that most of the items that were cross loading onto different factors had relatively low cross loadings of between 0.3 to 0.4. In order to resolve the low cross loadings, SPSS was instructed to suppress correlations of less than 0.5. Furthermore, based on the theoretical model that had been previously developed, SPSS was instructed to forcefully extract 8 factors, rather than base the dimension reduction on eigenvalues. In order to obtain a good EFA model, with no cross loadings some of the items were deleted (Refer to Appendix 1 – list of items deleted). The final set of 8 factors extracted explained 42.7% variation in the data. The final matrix developed at the end of this preliminary analysis is as below in Table 7.2

	Factor							
	Support and Encouragement-Grandparents	Perceived Behavioural Control	Personal Attitude	Support and Encouragement-Parents	Intentions	Experience and Experimentation	Image	Subjective Norms
SEf	0.865							
SEk	0.862							
SEl	0.826							
SEg	0.825							
Sl	0.741							
Sm	0.732							
SNk	0.712							
SN e	0.677							
PBCf		0.712						
PBCe		0.703						
PBCd		0.695						
PBCc		0.664						
PBCb		0.624						
PBCg		0.577						
PBCa		0.568						
PA d			0.831					
PA c			0.822					
PA e			0.734					
PA b			0.679					
PA f			0.563					
PAa			0.508					
SEe				0.804				
SEd				0.788				
SEi				0.671				
SEh				0.669				
SN a				0.562				
SN b				0.537				
INe					0.772			
INf					0.772			
INd					0.743			
INc					0.697			
INg					0.660			
INb					0.566			
EEb						0.778		
EEa						0.734		
EEc						0.719		
EEd						0.586		
Imk							0.730	
Iml							0.669	
Imh							0.617	
Imi							0.601	
IMg							0.561	
Imj							0.502	
Snn								0.854
SNm								0.798
SN g								0.555

Table 7.2: Exploratory Factor Analysis: Development of factors

The items developed under the three of the theory of Planned Behaviour constructs, that are Perceived Behavioural control (PBC), Personal Attitude (PA) and Intention (In) all loaded strongly on single factors and had strong factor loadings of more than 0.5. For the fourth construct that forms a part of the TPB, Subjective Norms (SN), questions relating to friends, colleagues and other relatives loaded onto a single factor (Factor 8). However, all the questions that were looking into the role of parents or grandparents loaded onto Factor 4 and Factor 1, respectively. Hence, the Subjective norms factor was retained so that the impact of individuals other than close family (Parents and Grandparents) could be captured.

The Cronbach alpha for each of these are as below:

Personal Attitude $\alpha=0.901$ (number of items = 7)

Perceived Behavioural Control $\alpha=0.864$ (number of items = 7)

Subjective Norm $\alpha=0.807$ (number of items = 3)

Intention $\alpha=0.913$ (number of items = 6)

Furthermore, the previous chapter described the formation of four more variables that were hypothesised to have an influence on intentions. These four were Support and Encouragement, Socialisation, Image and Experience and Experimentation. From these four, the items developed to measure Experience and Experimentation all loaded onto a single factor and the Cronbach alpha for this factor was $\alpha=0.825$ (number of items = 4). Scale developed to measure Image was also found to be unidimensional and reliable with $\alpha=0.783$ (number of items = 6).

However, the items that were developed to measure Support and Encouragement and Socialisation showed a lot of cross-loadings and the items were not loading clearly onto either factors. On further inspection of the cross-loading items it was found that the items from both these initial scales were splitting based on questions relating to parents and those relating to grandparents. Hence, Factor 1 as seen in the EFA in Table 7.2 was

renamed **Support and encouragement – Grandparents** and had a reliability of $\alpha=0.931$ (number of items = 8) and Factor 4 was renamed **Support and encouragement – Parents** (number of items = 6) and had a reliability of $\alpha=0.873$. Both these new factors had some items that had been developed under the factor of Subjective norms as well, relating to either grandparents or parents respectively. The final Subjective norms construct, which is Factor 8 from the EFA above only had items relating to friends, colleagues and other relatives.

The EFA above also upholds the requirements of Convergent Validity as the items under each factor, load highly onto that specific factor with average loading being above 0.5. Also, by making sure any cross-loading items are removed and a clean component matrix has been developed, the discriminant validity of the data set has also been maintained. Another aspect of the discriminant validity is to ensure that each of the factors developed are distinct. The component correlation matrix as shown below (Table 7.3), shows that none of the extracted factors had a correlation of greater than 0.7, once again upholding the requirements for discriminant validity.

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1.00	.08	.16	.09	.21	.06	.15	.11
2	.08	1.00	.58	.59	.36	.05	.30	.21
3	.16	.58	1.00	.46	.36	.06	.36	.25
4	.09	.59	.46	1.00	.39	.07	.09	.29
5	.21	.36	.36	.39	1.00	.17	-.00	.23
6	.06	.05	.06	.07	.17	1.00	-.02	.11
7	.15	.30	.36	.09	-.00	-.012	1.00	.04
8	.11	.21	.25	.29	.23	.11	.04	1.00

Table 7.3: Factor Correlation Matrix

7.5 FINAL HYPOTHESES TO BE TESTED

Following the EFA, some rearrangements were made to the variables that had been developed previously in this study. As discussed in the previous section the factors Socialisation and Support and Encouragement were rearranged to form two new factors – Support and Encouragement Grandparents and Support and Encouragement Parents. Additionally, Family Support Structure as a factor was removed. Therefore the hypotheses as developed in Section 7.2 had to be rewritten. The complete set of new hypotheses that will be tested in this chapter are as below:

H1: ‘Family’ has a direct positive effect on entrepreneurial intentions

H1a: A greater amount of Support and Encouragement from Grandparents to entrepreneurship will have a direct positive relationship with Entrepreneurial Intentions

H1b: A greater amount of Support and Encouragement from Parents towards entrepreneurship will have a direct positive relationship with Entrepreneurial Intentions

H1c: A greater amount of entrepreneurial Experience and Experimentation will have a direct positive relationship with Entrepreneurial Intentions

H1d: A greater need to conform to Image will have a direct positive relationship with Entrepreneurial Intentions

H2: Personal Attitude mediates the influence of ‘Family’ on the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals.

H2a: Personal attitude mediates the effect that Support and Encouragement Grandparents has on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H2b: Personal Attitude mediates the effect of Support and Encouragement Parents towards entrepreneurship on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H2c: Personal Attitude mediates the effect of Experience and Experimentation on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H2d: Personal Attitude mediates the effect of Image on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H3: Perceived Behavioural Control mediates the influence of 'Family' on the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals.

H3a: Perceived Behavioural Control mediates the effect that Support and Encouragement Grandparents has on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H3b: Perceived Behavioural Control mediates the effect of Support and Encouragement Parents towards entrepreneurship on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H3c: Perceived Behavioural Control mediates the effect of Experience and Experimentation on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H3d: Perceived Behavioural Control mediates the effect of Image on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H4: Subjective Norms mediate the influence of 'Family' on the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals.

H4a: Subjective Norms mediates the effect that Support and Encouragement Grandparents has on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H4b: Subjective Norms mediates the effect of Support and Encouragement Parents towards entrepreneurship on Entrepreneurial Intention

H4c: Subjective Norms mediates the effect of Experience and Experimentation on Entrepreneurial Intentions

H4d: Subjective Norms mediates the effect of Image on Entrepreneurial Intentions

Based on the final set of hypothesis discussed above, the final model that will be tested is shown below in figure 7.2.

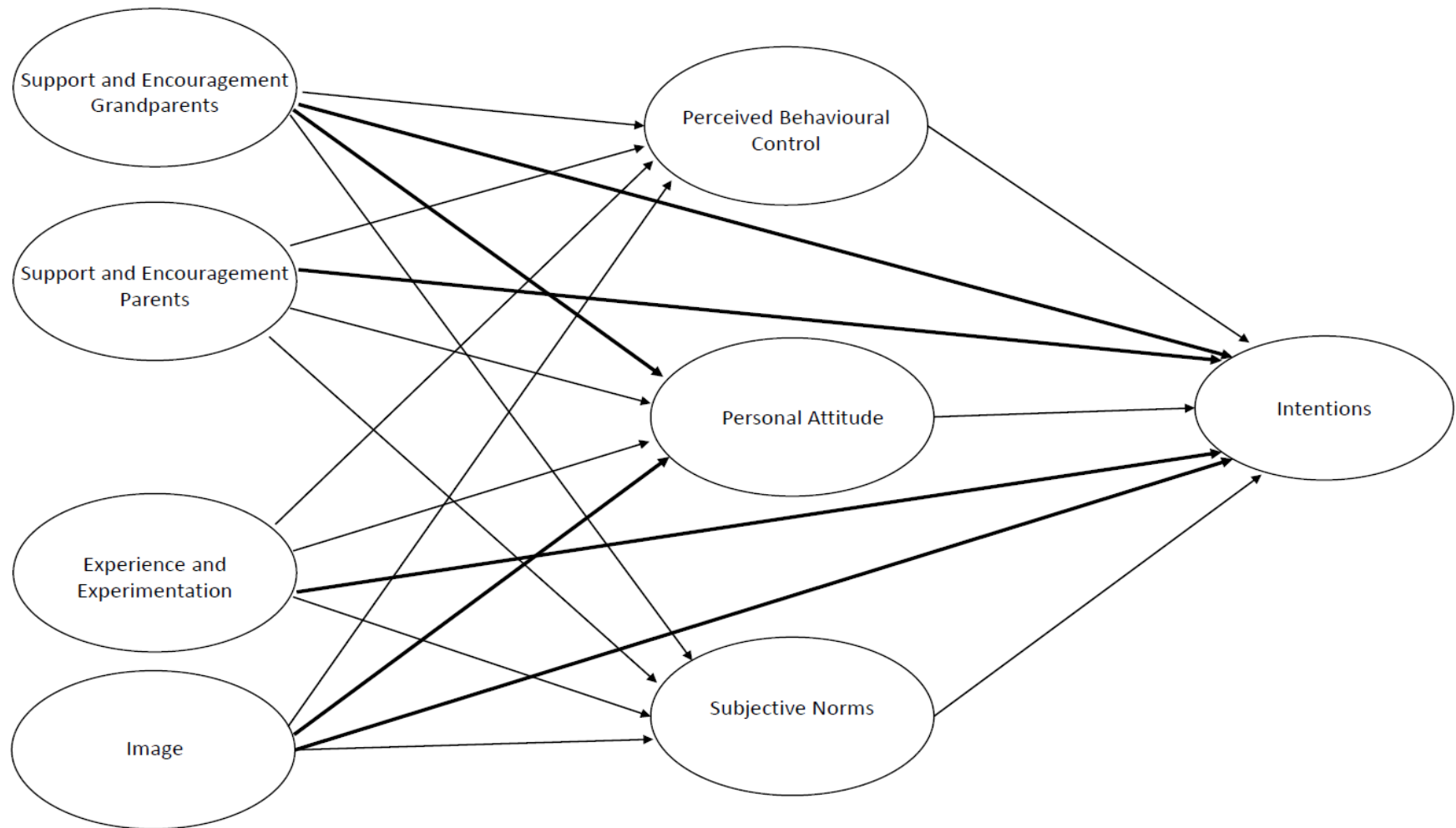


Figure 7.2: Final model to be tested

7.6 CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Following the generation of factors, the validity and the reliability tests prove the strength of the measurement model by identifying factors that load onto same latent variables, measuring the strength of their correlations and also looking at correlating latent variables. The analysis of these tests and developing a final measurement model that can be used for the development of the structural model and SEM is the main aim for the CFA.

Along with this, CFA is one of the most important tools for measuring the construct validity of the developed model. Both, convergent and discriminant validity can be assessed following CFA. The convergent validity is measured by looking for strong factor loadings for items that have been defined to measure a specific variable. This suggests that items that are theoretically linked, are strongly correlating with the factor they are meant to measure (Brown and Moore, 2015). Also, discriminant validity of the factors is measured by looking for low correlations between theoretically different constructs, and that their respective items do not cross-load and have no correlations as well (Brown and Moore, 2015). The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) is calculated to establish both convergent and discriminant validity. This will be discussed in the following section.

For the purpose of this study, CFA was used to confirm the model developed following EFA. Once the final measurement model was produced, this was then used as a precursor to SEM and the formation of a Structural Model. The CFA, along with the relevant validity tests will be discussed in the following results section.

7.7 DEVELOPING AND TESTING THE STRUCTURAL MODEL

After clearly defining and identifying the various factors and variables involved, the next step is to test the relationship that exists between each of the latent variables. In order to form the structural model, the latent variables are graphically represented and arrows in the direction of predicted action are drawn, in order to test the relationship between the variables. Before the structural model is used for testing the hypothesis, the data has to be tested to ensure that it fulfills the basic assumptions that are a prerequisite for conducting SEM.

To begin with, initial tests are required to check the normality of the spread of the data. Thus, the **Skewness and Kurtosis** of the data was checked. Both these factors are important in defining the shape of the distribution of the sample data (Joanes and Gill, 1998). Skewness describes the extent to which the data is 'skewed' or biased towards a particular group (Wright and Herrington, 2007). Similarly, Kurtosis describes the 'tailedness' of the data. A data set that has a high kurtosis value suggests that there is limited variability in the responses, and the values in response to a particular item were very similar (DeCarlo, 1997). The importance of checking normality of the data is highlighted by the fact that most of the inferential tests that are conducted on the data, already assume that the data is normally distributed. In fact the strength and significance of the results can be impacted if the data is not normally distributed. In this study, both skewness and kurtosis were measured and no significant issues were identified, indicating that the data is normally distributed.

The next step was to check for any **Invariance** in the data. Invariance test is important to make sure that the responses to each of the factors being measured are not affected by any underlying natural groupings or patterns that may occur in the data set (Kim and Yoon, 2011). These include factors such as gender, culture and background amongst others. Therefore, these tests ensure that the items on each construct are being

interpreted in the same manner by different groups of respondents and hence can be interpreted unambiguously (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002). A Multi-group CFA (MGCFA) is conducted to test for any differences arising due to natural grouping in the data (Kim and Yoon, 2011).

Finally, before beginning the analysis on the strengths of the relationships that exist between the various variables, the two key multivariate assumptions that were tested for were the multicollinearity and linearity of the data.

Multicollinearity is said to exist if two or more exogenous latent variables in the model have high correlations with each other (Zainodin et al, 2011). However, there is lack of consensus on whether multicollinearity can be considered a limitation while conducting SEM (Grewal et al, 2004). Furthermore, there are studies that suggest that multicollinearity does not have any significant effects on the results of the SEM (Malhotra et al, 1999; Verbeke and Bagozzi, 2000; Maruyama, 1998). But there are several others that suggest that the presence of multicollinearity can cause miscalculation and over estimation of the coefficients (Grewal et al, 2004; Kelava et al, 2015). In order to solve this, often looking at solely the linear correlations that exist between two variables is not sufficient for identifying the presence of multicollinearity. Therefore to compensate for this, most data analysis software packages calculate the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) to help look for the presence of multicollinearity (Mansfield and Helms, 1982). The VIF quantifies how much the variance of the estimated coefficients for each factor are inflated. In general, a VIF of 1 is considered to show no multicollinearity between the factors, and a VIF of greater than 4 is considered to be problematic and should be probed further (Grewal et al, 2004). In this study, the VIF for the factors was measured using the SPSS analysis software and no multicollinearity was seen in the factors of the model (Appendix 4).

Finally, the last assumption that required to be satisfied before the structural

equation model could be run, was the **Linearity** of the relationship between the factors. Most of the software packages assume that the factors have a linear relationship between each other, and the estimates of the coefficients are based on this prior assumption, hence in the absence of linearity, the coefficients may not be accurately depicting the relationships in the model (Schumacker and Lomax, 2010).

All the relationships between the defined variables in this model were tested by curve estimation regression analysis on SPSS and most of the relationships were found to be sufficiently linear to be tested in a structural equation model (Appendix 4). The absence of absolute linearity in all the relationships is one of the limitations of the study.

7.7.1 Correlational Analysis

In the following table, the descriptive statistics, along with the Cronbach's alpha and correlations between each of the factor are provided. All of the variables, with the exception of the control variables, were found to be statistically significantly correlated to each other at $p=0.01$.

	Mean	S.D.	Alpha (α)	AVE	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.
1. Entrepreneurial Intentions	3.88	1.48	0.91	0.74	1	.66**	.62**	.07*	.30**	.41**	.10**	.25**	.15**	.10**	.09**	.03
2. Personal Attitude	5.15	1.42	0.90	0.59	.66**	1	.50**	.03	.14**	.40**	.05	.30**	.08**	.07**	.08**	.13
3. Perceived Behavioural Control	3.96	1.33	0.86	0.52	.62**	.50**	1	.10**	.37**	.39**	.20**	.26**	.12**	.11**	.08*	.01
4. Image	3.46	.77	0.81	0.51	.07*	0.03	.09**	1	.15**	.10**	.10**	.08**	.009	.08**	.10**	-.08
5. Experience and Experimentation	2.10	1.20	0.65	0.55	.30**	.14**	.37**	.15**	1	.08**	.13**	.04	.10**	.16**	-.03	-.04
6. Support and Encouragement Parents	5.17	1.62	0.87	0.57	.41**	.40**	.39**	.10**	.08**	1	.28**	.26**	.10**	0.00	.09**	-.02
7. Support and Encouragement Grandparents	2.86	2.13	0.93	0.66	.10**	0.05	.20**	.10**	.13**	.28**	1	.14**	.12**	.03	-.03	-.05
8. Subjective Norm	5.00	1.92	0.83	0.62	.25**	.30**	.26**	.08**	.04	.26**	.14**	1	.02	.02	.05	.05
9. Family background	-	-	-	-	.15**	.08**	.12**	.009	.10**	.10**	.12**	.02	1	.00	.04	-.05
10. Gender	-	-	-	-	.10**	.07**	.11**	.08**	.16**	.00	.03	.02	.00	1	.04	.04
11. Income	-	-	-	-	.09**	.08**	.08*	.10**	-.03	.09**	-.03	.05	.04	.04	1	-.05
12. Subject	-	-	-	-	.03	.13	.01	-.08	-.04	-.02	-.05	.05	-.05	.04	-.05	1

Notes: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$. Figures are based on 10-point Likert scales. AVE is 'Average Variance Extracted'

Table 7.4: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix

Once the basic assumptions that are a prerequisite for SEM have been met, statistical analysis software programs such as SPSS and SPSS AMOS are used to testing the relationships that have been hypothesised by the model. This is done by analysing the regression or path coefficients/weights between the variables. The relationship between two variables is quantified by a path coefficient that is a standardised regression weight (beta) that highlights the direct effect an independent variable has on the dependent variable in the defined model. The strength and significance of each of the relationships described in the model are assessed in order to prove or disprove the hypotheses that have been developed.

7.7.2 Results and Discussion from CFA and Model testing

The factors that emerged from the EFA analysis were tested in AMOS using CFA, where it was converted into a graphical representation of the suggested model (Figure 7.3). Each of the factors, represented by the circles were named as described above. The items that measure each of the factors are represented in the rectangle. Each of the rectangles is associated with a measurement error. As mentioned previously, this is one of the advantages of using SEM as the measurement error on the items helps to get rid of any error from the actual latent variable.

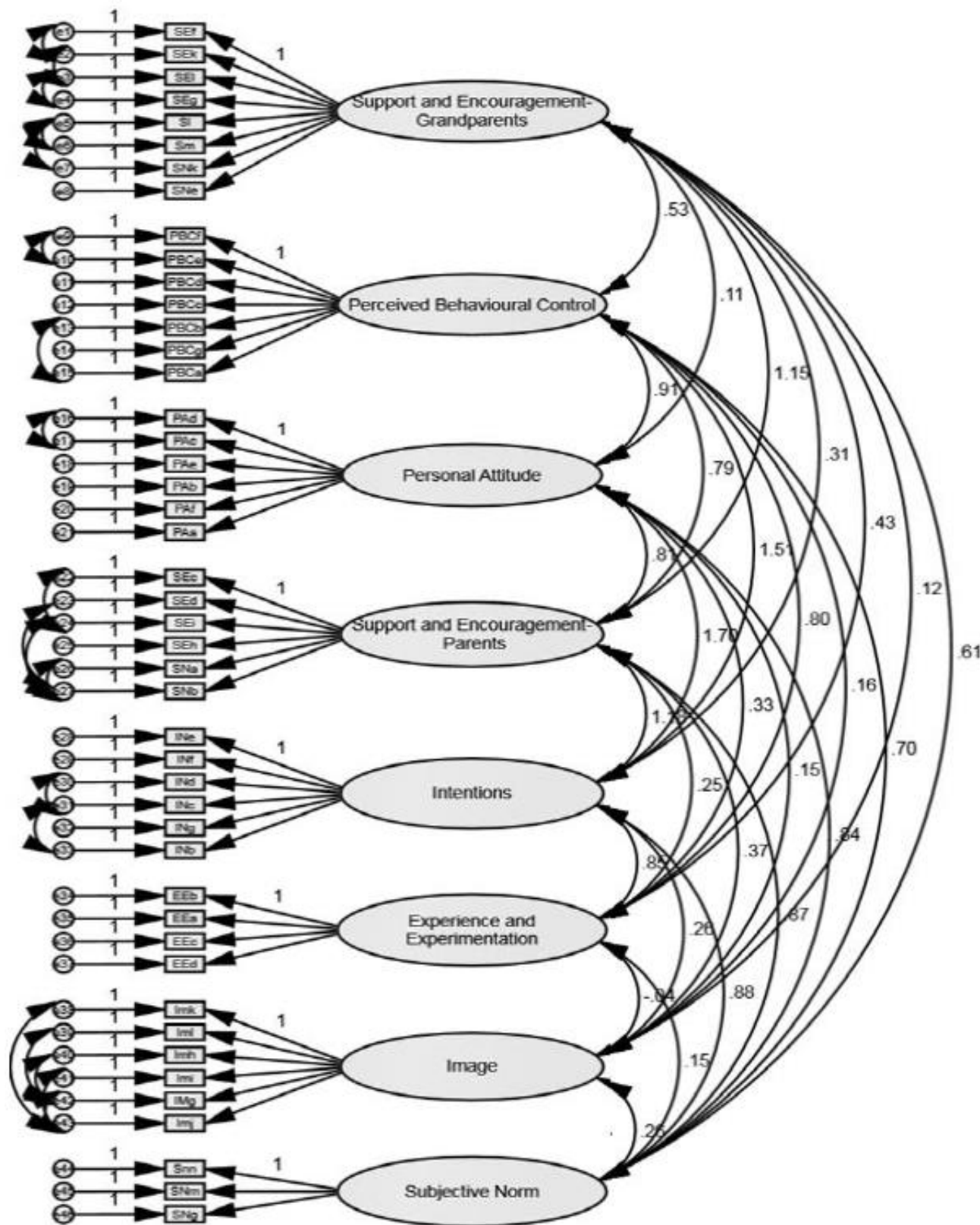


Figure 7.3: Initial CFA model developed using SPSS-AMOS

Once the CFA model was developed, the fit of hypothesised model was assessed. The fit of the initial model was not found to be satisfactory as none of the indicators were found to have satisfactory values. The CMIN/DF value was 7.61, CFI was 0.82 and RMSEA was 0.07. Therefore, in order to improve the model fit, the modification indices of the model were analysed. Several large modification indices were found, and in order to resolve these, the respective error terms were co-varied (as shown by the bi-directional arrows in the model above). Addition of correlated error terms is a common method found in the literature that is often used in order to improve the fit of the hypothesised model (Hermida, 2015) even though researchers have cautioned against its use (Shah and Goldstein, 2006; Tomarken and Waller, 2003). Landis, Edwards and Cortina (2009) suggested that there might be some conditions, such as the shared indicator variables, under which the addition of correlated error terms might be acceptable. The presence of correlated errors suggest that the variance may be accounted by a factor other than the latent variable (Brown, 2015), and often result due to the presence of common methods used for data collection. While, this can be considered to be a limitation of the model, only a limited number of correlated error terms were added in the initial model, to allow for a better fit. Additionally, these were only added within the factors, and not between items from different factors. The strong factor loadings and Cronbach's alpha provide confidence regarding the hypothesised model, and should help to counteract the impact of the correlated error on the final model. Sorbom (1989) recommended that addition of correlated errors might be an acceptable method to achieve a better fit, rather than abandoning data.

The model fit statistics for the above model were assessed based on the generated output. The CMIN/DF should be between 1 – 4, for the model to be considered as a good fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999). The CMIN/DF value for the proposed model was 3.81 and hence within the acceptable range. Next, the CFI of the model should be above 0.90 for a

good fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Once again the value for the CFI was found to be within the acceptable range at 0.92. Finally, the RMSEA was assessed. This should be not significant and less than 0.05 (Steiger, 2007). The results for this parameter were satisfactory with RMSEA at 0.03 and not significant. Table 7.5 shows these goodness-of-fit indices along with their acceptable range.

Goodness-of-Fit Index	Value for Default Model	Acceptable range/Value
CMIN/DF	3.76	Between 1-3
CFI	0.92	0.90 and above
RMSEA	0.03	0.05 and less
PCLOSE	0.1(NS)	Not Significant

Table 7.5: Goodness of Fit indices

The results discussed above demonstrate that all of the criteria for the model to be considered a good fit were being fulfilled. The next step was to check for any invariance in the data. Invariance test is important to make sure that the responses to each of the factors being measured are not affected by issues such as gender, culture and background. Therefore, they ensure that the items on each construct are being interpreted in the same manner by different groups of respondents.

In order to test for the invariance, the data was divided into three groups. First based on gender, second based on the presence of siblings and third based on the background of either joint family or not. For each of these groups, it was found that there were no significant differences in the data resulting from either of these different respondent groups, hence the data was invariant.

Finally, the last step was to validate the CFA model. This was done by checking the convergent and discriminant validity of the model. Convergent validity was established by looking at the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) along with the Composite reliability (CR) for each of the factors. AVE measures the amount of variance that is captured by the

construct and compares it to the amount of variance that results due to random error. Values above 0.5 are usually considered to be acceptable (Farrell and Rudd, 2009). In cases where AVE values are low, deleting items with low loadings can help to improve the convergent validity of the factor. The second statistic that is used to assess convergent validity is CR. It is considered to be a less biased estimate of the reliability of a factor. Values of 0.7 and above are considered acceptable (Farrell, 2010). Table 7.6 shows the results of CR and AVE for each of the factors in this study.

	FACTOR	CR	AVE
1	Image	.84	.53
2	Support and Encouragement-Grandparents	.92	.59
3	Perceived Behavioural Control	.88	.52
4	Personal Attitude	.90	.60
5	Support and Encouragement- Parents	.87	.54
6	Intentions	.94	.74
7	Experience and Experimentation	.83	.55
8	Subjective Norms	.83	.62

Table 7.6: Convergent Validity of Factors

The results of the convergent validity demonstrated that ‘Image’ factor had an AVE value less than 0.5. In order to solve this, the loadings of each of the items for this factor were re-analysed and item Im(i) was removed, as it was found to have the lowest factor loading. When convergent validity was checked again, the model was found to be valid with all factors showing an AVE of greater than 0.5

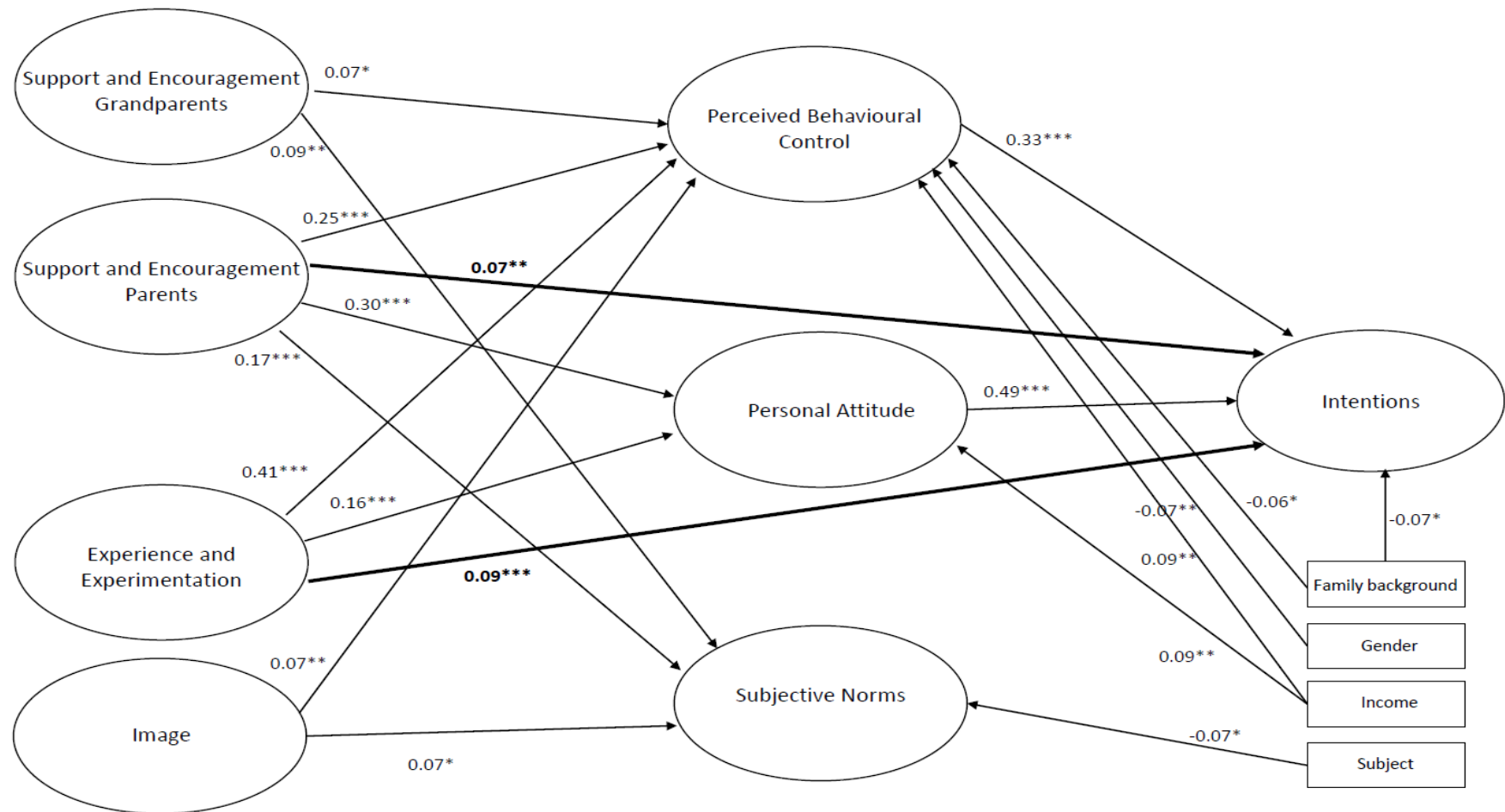
Discriminant validity is measured by comparing the square root of the AVE for each of the factors to the correlations of that factor with all other factors (Farrell, 2010). This is known as the Fornell-Larcker criteria, one of the most commonly used tests for checking discriminant validity (Ringle et al, 2012). Table 7.7 shows the square root of each of the factors (on the diagonal) in comparison to the correlations between other factors.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
0.726							
0.020	0.769						
0.103	0.175	0.721					
0.089	0.035	0.554	0.774				
0.133	0.239	0.312	0.310	0.732			
0.100	0.071	0.664	0.714	0.325	0.858		
-0.023	0.127	0.444	0.178	0.089	0.330	0.744	
0.098	0.132	0.287	0.330	0.224	0.251	0.055	0.788

Table 7.7: Discriminant Validity by Fornell-Larcker Criteria

Once the CFA was completed and the model tested for its validity, SPSS AMOS was used to develop and run the structural equation model. Before the structural model was run, the control variables were added to the hypothesised model. These were Family background, Gender, Income, Subject, Presence of siblings and living in a joint family. Family background was developed as a bivariate variable with ‘0’ indicating business/entrepreneurial family and ‘1’ indicating non-business family. Gender was developed as a bivariate variable with ‘0’ indicating ‘Male’ and 1 indicating ‘Female’. The variable for income was also converted into a bivariate variable with 0 indicating those that have indicated an income of below Rs. 500,000 and 1 indicating those that have indicated an income of above Rs. 500,000. The figure of Rs. 500,000 was chosen as the cut-off to help divide the respondents into two distinct groups. Those in the below Rs. 500,000 group made up the low to medium income levels whereas those in the above Rs. 500,000 were clearly in the high income level groups. The per capital income level of individuals living in New Delhi is estimated to be around Rs. 300,000 (“Delhi Budget Highlights”, 2017). Hence by using a cut-off of Rs. 500,000 this study clearly distinguishes the high income level individuals from others. Such a variable hence proves to be efficient for controlling for any effects due to income variability. Similarly, Subject was also converted into a bivariate variable with 0 indicating those in a non-management subject

and 1 indicating Management subjects. Presence of siblings and Joint family were developed as a 'Yes' or 'No' scale, with Yes indicated by '0' and No indicated by '1'. The impact of the variables was controlled for on each of the 5 endogenous variables – PA, PBC, SN and Intentions. Joint family and Siblings variables were not found to be significantly related to any of the dependent variables in the model. Income was significantly related to Personal Attitude and Perceived Behavioural Control. Gender was significantly related to PBC only and Subject was found to be significantly related to SN. The significant relationships between all the independent or dependent variables have been shown in Figure 7.4.



Notes: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Figure 7.4: Structural Equation Model with standardised regression weights and significance

The final structural equation model satisfied the model fit statistics required for a satisfactory fit, $\chi^2=4204.43$, $df=1118$, $\chi^2/df=3.76$, $GFI=0.87$, $CFI=0.92$, $RMSEA=0.03$, and $RMR=0.243$.

The four control variables included in the model were Family background, Gender, Income and Subject. Family background was found to have a significant inverse relationship with EI with $\beta= -0.07$ and $p<0.05$. The other three were not statistically significantly related to EI. Family background had a significant inverse relationship with PBC with $\beta= -0.06$ and $p<0.05$. No significant relation was found between family background and PA or Subjective Norm. Income control variable had a statistically significant relation with PBC and PA, but not with Subjective Norms and Gender had a significant relationship with PBC. There was a significant inverse relationship between Gender with PBC ($\beta= -0.07$, $p<0.05$). The relationship between Income and PA showed a $\beta=0.09$ ($p<0.01$) and Income and PBC showed a $\beta=0.07$ ($p<0.01$). Subject was significantly related to Subjective Norm in an inverse relationship $\beta= -0.07$ ($p<0.05$).

The standardised path coefficients from Support and Encouragement Parents to EI and also Experience and Experimentation to EI were highly significant $\beta=0.07$ ($p<0.001$) and $\beta=0.08$ ($p<0.001$), respectively. However, the standardised path coefficients from Support and Encouragement Grandparents to EI and Image to EI were both not significant, with standardised regression weights of $\beta=-0.04$ and $\beta=0.03$ respectively.

Thus, the results demonstrate moderate support for hypothesis H1. Hypothesis H1 (b) and H1 (c) have been upheld and suggest that Support and Encouragement from parents as well as Experience and Experimentation have a direct positive relationship with Entrepreneurial Intentions. Hypothesis H1 (a) and H1 (d) are rejected, as no relationship between Support and Encouragement Grandparents and EI as well as Image and EI was found.

It is often true, that observed relationships are part of more complex chain of

relationships. Often, during the initial stages of a research the aim is limited to identifying the existence of relationships between variables. However, in more advanced scenarios merely providing evidence for the presence of a relationship is not sufficient. The study should also be able to explain how, why and when such relationships exist in order to be able to better understand the phenomenon being studied (Hayes, 2012). If the aim of a research project is to understand how a particular variable may be having an effect on another variable, then such a question is answered by Mediation Analysis. That is, if the research question is related to trying to find out whether, and how, a variable X has an effect on another variable Y, then mediation analysis can help to identify certain mediator variables that may help in explaining how X has an effect on Y. This would suggest that X would have an impact on the mediating variable, M, which would then influence variable Y (MacKinnon, Fairchild and Fritz, 2007). However, if the research question was aimed at trying to understand when, or under what conditions a variable X effects variable Y, then Moderation Analysis is the most suitable path to follow. Moderation analysis provides the researcher with answers that help to explain whether the effect of variable X on Y is dependent on certain moderating variables. Therefore, this would suggest that if X influenced Y, the influence can be either increased or decreased by another moderating variable, which is not influence by X (Jaccard and Turrisi, 2003).

Since the aim of the researcher in this study was to try to examine how an individual's family is capable of influencing their entrepreneurial intentions, it was decided that following the mediation approach would be most suitable. The model in this study conceptualises that the independent variable, Family influences either some or all of the variables of the TPB, which then influence the dependent variable, entrepreneurial intentions. This makes each of the TPB variables, mediating variables.

In order to test the remaining three hypotheses, the role of the three factors that form a part of the Theory of Planned Behaviour will be tested for their mediating effect in

the developed model. Such relationships, where certain factors may have indirect effects are known as Mediating Relationships and the factor that is causing a change in the relationship between 2 factors is known as the Mediator (Little et al, 2007). Taking the example of 2 factors X and Y, a mediating effect by M is believed to be present when 3 conditions have been fulfilled. Firstly, X and M should be significantly related to each other. Secondly, M should be significantly related to Y. And finally, the relationship between X and Y is reduced in strength when M is included in the model during analysis (Little et al, 2007; Baron and Kenney, 1986).

A relationship is said to be *fully mediated* when all the significant variation that is seen in Y is due to the direct effects of the mediator, M, on Y. This implies that the mediator is essential to capture the effect that the construct X has on Y, and the relationship is indirect. A *partially mediated* relationship is one where a significant amount of variation in Y is attributed to the indirect effect of X via the mediator M, but along with this there is also a significant amount of variation that can be attributed directly to the factor X. Finally, a relationship is said to have *No mediation* when significant variation in Y is only seen directly through the impact of X, and the mediator M has no significant impact (Little et al, 2007).

However, the Baron and Kenny approach (1986) mentioned above is no longer considered suitable enough for testing mediation. Comparisons between this and the SEM approach towards testing mediation have been discussed in several reviews, and it is suggested the SEM approach is more powerful than the Baron and Kenney approach (James, Mulaik and Brett, 2004; James and Brett, 1984; Schneider et al. 2005; Wang and Rafiq, 2014). Joint significance testing along with Bootstrap analysis was used in order to measure the extent and the significance of the mediation in the developed model, and to test the significance of the indirect effects seen in the model. For Joint significance, the path between the independent variable and the mediator, as well as the mediator and the

dependent variable have to be significant to establish the indirect effect of the independent variable via the mediator on the dependent variable (Conway and Briner, 2014). This method helps to circumvent the issues related to small sample sizes and non-normal or asymmetrical distribution of data. While performing Bootstrap analysis, the software developed are able to resample with replacement, from the original data set and provide the size and significance for all of the indirect effects that may be present (Conway and Briner, 2014; Preacher and Hayes, 2004). In this study, AMOS Graphics software was used to generate 2000 bootstrapped samples, with 95% confidence intervals.

The bootstrap analysis showed that the indirect effects of support and encouragement-parents, experience and experimentation and image to intentions were significant at $p < 0.05$. However, the indirect effects of support and encouragement grandparents to intentions did not show significant indirect effects.

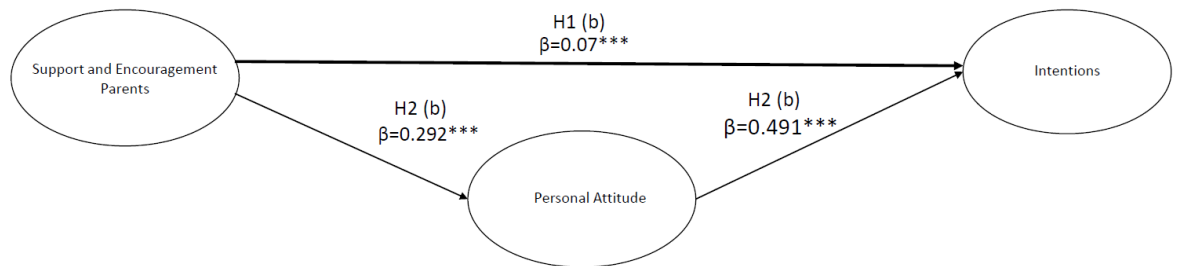
In order to test for Hypothesis H2, the role of Personal Attitude as a mediating variable for each of the 4 factors of family was measured. The bootstrap analysis across 2000 samples with 95% confidence showed that PA is significantly related to Support and Encouragement Parents ($\beta = 0.292$, $p < 0.001$) and Experience and Experimentation ($\beta = 0.153$, $p < 0.001$). PA is not significantly related to Support and Encouragement Grandparents ($\beta = -0.054$) and Image ($\beta = 0.051$). Additionally PA is also significantly related to the dependent variable, EI ($\beta = 0.491$, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, these results indicate that there is moderate support for Hypothesis H2. The joint significance test was upheld for Support and Encouragement Parents with PA, and PA with EI, thereby suggesting partially mediation of the relationship by PA. Also, Experience and Experimentation with EI was found to be partially mediated by PA, as relationship between Experience and Experimentation and PA, and PA and EI were significant. Hence, this provides support for Hypothesis H2 (b) and H2 (c).

Hypothesis H3 assess the mediating relation of Perceived Behavioural Control with the four factors associated with Family and EI. PBC is significantly related to all of the four family factors, Support and Encouragement Parents ($\beta=0.245$, $p < 0.001$), Experience and Experimentation ($\beta=0.410$, $p < 0.001$), Support and Encouragement Grandparents ($\beta=0.071$, $p < 0.05$) and Image ($\beta=0.069$, $p < 0.05$). PBC is also significantly related to EI ($\beta=0.332$, $p < 0.001$). In the presence of PBC as a mediator the direct effect of Image and Support and Encouragement Grandparents on EI is no longer significant, hence PBC fully mediates the relationship between Image and EI as well as Support and Encouragement Grandparents and EI. These results show support for Hypothesis H 3(d) and Hypothesis H 3(a) respectively.

However, the direct relationship between Support and Encouragement Parents and EI, as well as Experience and Experimentation and EI retains significance in the presence of PBC as a mediator suggesting that PBC partially mediates the relationship between Support and Encouragement Parents and EI, supporting Hypothesis H 3(b) as well as the relationship between Experience and Experimentation and EI, supporting Hypothesis H 3(c).

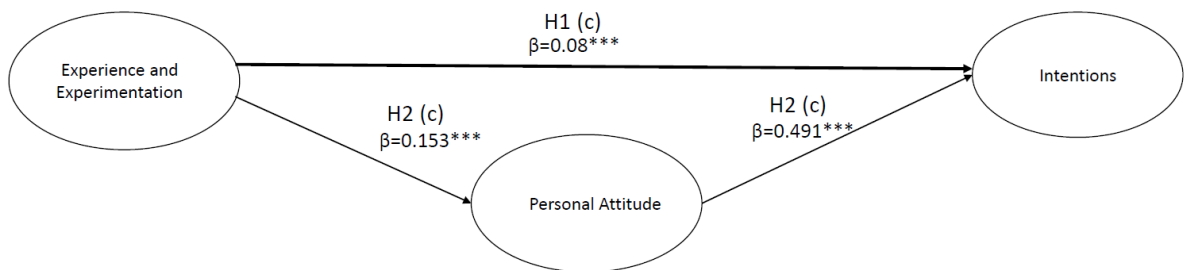
Finally, the final set of Hypotheses H4 looked into the mediating role played by Subjective Norms on the relationship between family and the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals. The results indicate that Subjective Norms is significantly related to Support and Encouragement Grandparents ($\beta=0.09$, $p < 0.01$), Support and Encouragement Parents ($\beta=0.18$, $p < 0.001$) and Image ($\beta=0.07$, $p < 0.05$). SN is not significantly related to Experience and Experimentation. Furthermore, SN is not statistically significantly related to EI. As a result of this, there was no mediating role of Subjective Norms was found for any of the four relationships. Therefore, there was no evidence in support of hypothesis H4.

The significant relationships found have been summarized in Figure 7.5.⁴



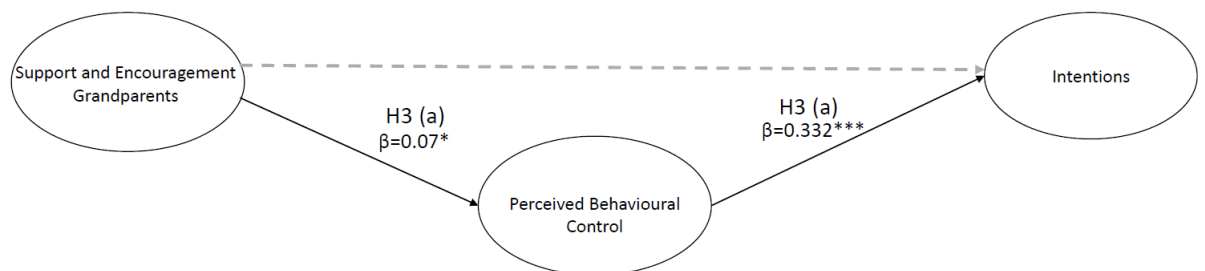
H1(b) : Support and encouragement from parents has a significant impact on entrepreneurial intentions

H2(b) : Personal attitude partially mediates, the impact of support and encouragement from parents on entrepreneurial intentions



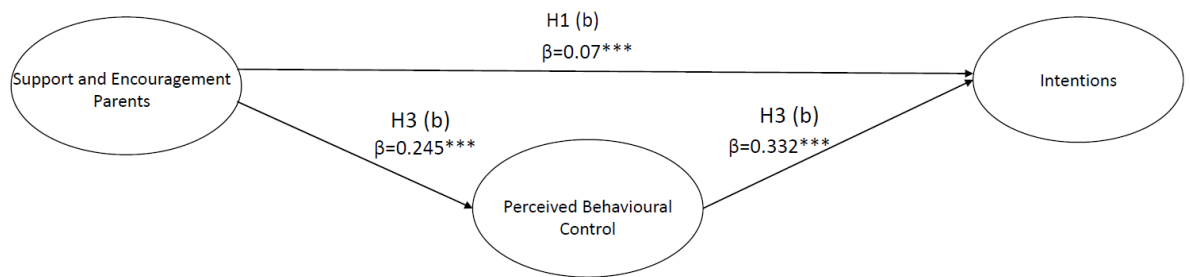
H1(c) : Experience and experimentation has a significant impact on entrepreneurial intentions

H2(c) : Personal attitude partially mediates, the impact of experience and experimentation on entrepreneurial intentions

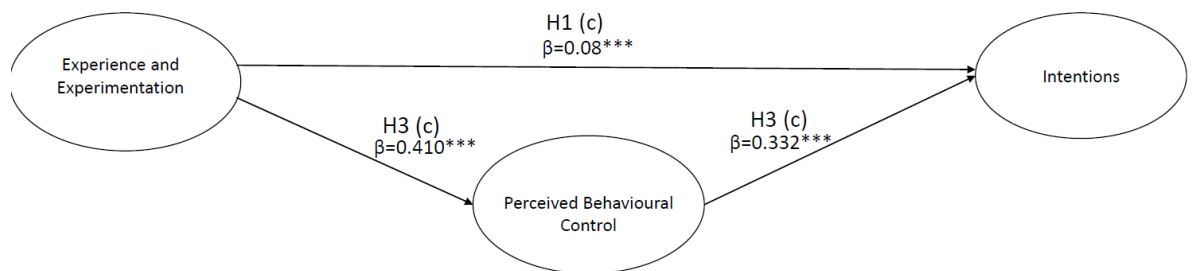


H3(a) : Perceived Behavioural Control fully mediates, the impact of support and encouragement from grandparents on entrepreneurial intentions

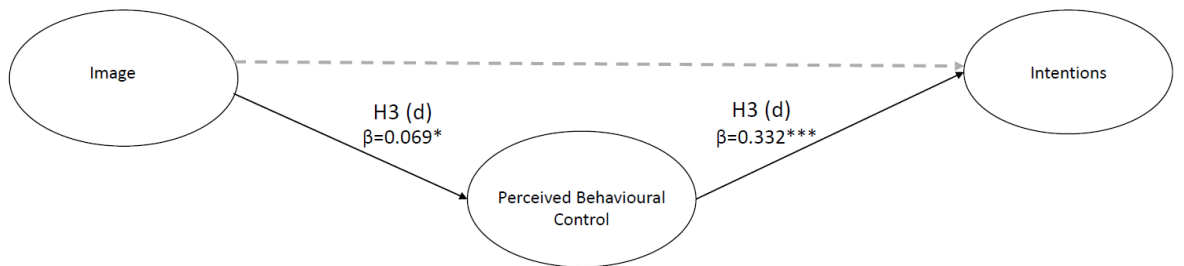
⁴ Multiple Regression tests were run along with the SEM tests to check the robustness of the analysis. All regression path weights and significance levels were found to be similar to those generated by SEM. For example, the standardized regression coefficient for the relationship between Personal Attitude and Intentions was 0.454 in the MR model and was 0.491 in the SEM. The total predictability for the regression model was also found to be the same as for the SEM as shown by the adjusted R-square for model 4 in the table above.



H3(b) : Perceived Behavioural Control partially mediates, the impact of support and encouragement from parents on entrepreneurial intentions



H3(c) : Perceived Behavioural Control partially mediates, the impact of experience and experimentation on entrepreneurial intentions



H3(d) : Perceived Behavioural Control fully mediates, the impact of image on entrepreneurial intentions

Figure 7.5: Final Supported hypothesis with size of coefficients

7.8 CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to describe the analysis strategy and report the results obtained from the primary, quantitative data obtained in the second part of this study. The data was collected in a cross-sectional manner over a period of 2 months, from a sample that was made up of final year students from University of Delhi. Questionnaires for the final study were conducted in 6 colleges within the University of Delhi, which had been chosen by random sampling. Once permission was obtained from the principals of the colleges, 2500 questionnaires were collected from students after random sampling from a population comprising of all final year students of the chosen colleges. The results obtained by Structural Equation Modelling of the data showed that the effect of family can be divided broadly in 4 different factors – Support and Encouragement coming from Parents, Support and Encouragement coming from grandparents, Image and finally the Experience and Experimentation offered by the family. The impacts of each of these directly on Entrepreneurial intentions was analysed, along with using factors from the Theory of Planned Behaviour as possible mediating variables. The results showed that Support and Encouragement from Parents, along with Experience and Experimentation are significantly related to entrepreneurial intentions, and there relationships are partially mediated by Personal Attitude and Perceived Behavioural Control. Additionally, PBC was found to fully mediate the relationship between Image and EI, as well as Support and Encouragement Grandparents and EI. Subjective Norms was not found to be significantly related to EI, and hence did not mediate the effect of any of the four factors.

The next chapter will discuss these results in perspective of the current literature surrounding the development of entrepreneurial intentions and the role of other factors in influencing Entrepreneurial intentions.

CHAPTER 8

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study was to highlight the important role played by family in developing the entrepreneurial intentions of the youth of India. Having provided a detailed review of the literature in chapter 2 and methodology and results in the previous chapters, this final chapter will discuss the results obtained from the qualitative and quantitative studies in relation to the existing literature on the importance of family on the development of entrepreneurial intentions. This will also include a discussion on the relevance and importance of conducting this study in India, and especially in the area of New Delhi and the theoretical and practical implications of the study. The chapter will end by providing a conclusion to the study and discussing some limitations and future work.

8.2 ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR

Entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial ventures have been shown to create a large amount of benefit for several stakeholders and the wider society in general (Storey, 1994; Parker, 2004). As a result of this important role of entrepreneurship, the intentions that lead to the development of entrepreneurship have been the subject of several studies and a wide array of frameworks have been developed to analyse this. These include the entrepreneurial event model (EEM), the entrepreneurial potential model (Krueger and Brazeal, 1994), the davidsson model (Davidsson, 1995a, b) and, Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1987) that builds upon the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Out of all these frameworks, the TPB has been applied to a large number and variety of theoretical and empirical research problems in several disciplines including entrepreneurship (Guerrero, Rialp and Urbano, 2008).

While the literature widely acknowledges TPB to be one of the best models for predicting intentions (Gird and Bagraim, 2008; Krueger and Carsrud, 1993; Basu and Virick, 2008), there have been studies highlighting the need to further enhance and improve the model (Sniehotta, Pousseau and Araújo-Soares, 2014). One of the initial aims of this research was to test the TPB in the context on India, using Indian University students. The model was tested in this study using the EI questionnaire as developed by Linñan and Chen (2009). The results indicated, that as expected, the basic assumptions of the TPB were being fulfilled by the Indian students in this study as well. There was a strong and highly significant relationship between PA and EI ($\beta=0.490$, $p < 0.001$), as well as between PBC and EI ($\beta=0.330$, $p < 0.001$). The study by Linñan and Chen (2009) that used a similar questionnaire to test EI in students from different cultural backgrounds found the relationship between PA and EI to be between $\beta=0.677$ and $\beta=0.301$ and the relationship between PBC and EI to be between $\beta=0.579$ and $\beta=0.169$ depending on the cultural background. Hence, the results of this study seemed to be within the normal range that is expected. However, the relationship between SN and EI failed to reach statistical significance. Together, the model was found to predict 55% variation in intentions. This is relatively higher than some of the previously studies. The meta-analysis by Armitage and Connor (2001) suggests a 39% prediction of variation in intention by the TPB model. The weak nature of the SN construct has been highlighted as one of the main sources of improvement of the TPB (Armitage and Conner, 2001; Autio et al, 2001). A similar study conducted on Chinese university students looking into the impact that entrepreneurial education has on the three antecedents of EI as per the TPB, also depicted non-significant impact of SN on EI (Wu and Wu, 2008). The literature on the relationship of SN and EI is relatively torn, with some studies (Krueger, 1993; Chen et al, 1998; Linñan and Chen, 2009) showing non-significant relationships, probably due to the use of non-aggregate measures for SN. And others such as those by Nabi et al, 2011, show statistically significant

relationships. In this study, the subjective norm construct was initially developed with a significantly higher number of items (16 items), with the aim of trying to capture a larger effect of this variable. The construct was developed with the hope that it will capture the impact that not only significant others such as parents can have on the individual but also other individuals that the person comes in contact with on a regular basis, such as colleagues, friends and other relatives. It was hoped that inclusion on more items under the construct would help to overcome the insignificant effects that have been reported in the studies relating to the role of SN within the TPB. However, as discussed in chapter 7, most of the items that were developed for SN were found to load on two of the constructs that were developed to study the effect of family i.e the support and encouragement construct, and hence the SN construct had to be redesigned to include only the items testing for the effect of friends and colleagues. This was an interesting observation, as by including specific constructs that were aimed at capturing the effect of family in the model, the items pertaining to the SN of family members were redistributed to the new constructs. This provided evidence that the role of family, is indeed a factor worth considering while looking at entrepreneurial intentions and it requires the development of specific constructs, rather than just inclusion within the SN construct. Another observation that was made, was that in comparison to some of the previous studies that have tested the TPB model, this study showed a slightly higher impact of PBC on EI. Nabi et al (2011) previously did a comparison between developing and developed countries looking at the applicability of the TPB in these different countries, and also found that testing the TPB model in developing countries showed a bigger impact of PBC on EI, as compared to developed countries, hence supporting the observations made in this study.

Lastly, the control variables that were tested in this study included family background, gender, total income of family and the subject being studied in university. These were regressed onto the four dependent variables in the model namely, EI, PBC, PA

and SN. The only significant relationship for the control variables with EI, was found with family background, that separated the students based on them belonging to either a business family or a non-business family ($p < 0.05$ and $\beta = -0.07$). The data was coded such that those coming from business families, i.e. having one or more parent involved in their own entrepreneurial venture, was coded as 0. And individuals coming from families where no parent is involved in a family business/entrepreneurship was coded as 1. Hence, it suggested that belonging to a family with some experience in entrepreneurship – either through a venture or through a family business, had a positive impact on the entrepreneurial intentions of young individuals within the family. These findings are in accordance to a large amount of literature on the intentions of individuals with entrepreneurial parents (Carr and Sequiera, 2007; Zellweger et al, 2011; Basu and Virick, 2008). In addition to its impact on EI, family background was also found to be significantly associated with PBC ($p < 0.05$ and $\beta = -0.06$). This once again indicated the reduced perceived behavioural control that individuals coming from non-business or non-entrepreneurial families exhibit. Additionally, each of the other control variables used had some significant, although small impacts of the three key antecedents of EI. Gender, is a commonly used control variable in entrepreneurial studies (Obschonka, Silbereisen and Schmitt-Rodermund, 2010; Linñan and Chen, 2009; Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000) and studies have previously reported that being male has a positive impact on the PBC of the individual (Linñan and Chen, 2009; Wilson, Kickul and Marlino, 2007; Hackett et al, 1992). This was also found to be the case in this study. The relationship between Gender and PBC was significant ($\beta = -0.07$ and $p < 0.01$). The negative sign is due to the manner in which the data was coded for the gender variable, 0 was male and 1 was female. Hence, the results imply that being female has a negative impact on the PBC of the individual. This result seemed relevant, especially for a country like India, which struggles with gender equality. Recent studies have demonstrated that although women in India re

breaking the glass ceilings and entering into all the fields of occupation, including entrepreneurship, the lack of support and encouragement is one of the main hurdles that is faced by women entrepreneurs (Field, Jayachandran and Pande, 2010; Goyal and Prakash, 2011). The second variable that was tested and controlled for in the model was the total family income, which was coded as a bivariate variable with 0 coding for individuals coming from families that earn less than Rs 500,000 per annum and coded 1 for individuals coming from families that earn more than Rs 500,000 per annum. Although the extent of the impact was small, the significant positive relationship between family income and PA and PBC suggested that individuals coming from families that have higher earnings have higher feasibility and desirability for EI. Although entrepreneurial literature acknowledges the importance role of financial support from the family for starting a business, the relationship between the two is rather non-linear and there is not sufficient evidence to suggest that presence of family wealth will always have a positive impact on EI (Hurst and Lusardi, 2004). In fact Jaen et al (2015) showed that individuals that belong to higher income backgrounds often have reduced desirability towards entrepreneurship. Finally, considering the importance that has been given to entrepreneurial education and knowledge in the development of EI (Oosterbeek, Van Praag, and Ijsselstein, 2010; Fayolle, Gailly and Lassas-Clerc, 2006; Bae et al, 2014), the last factor that was controlled for was the impact of studying entrepreneurship related subjects in university. To control for this, the bivariate variable was coded such that 0 coded for students from non-management backgrounds and 1 coding for students with management education. Management was chosen as the broader subject to represent entrepreneurial education in this research. The results indicated a small, but significant negative impact of Subject on SN ($\beta = -0.07$ and $p < 0.05$). Contrary to the suggestions of the literature, it seemed that the views and opinions of significant others in the lives of management students were not in the favour of entrepreneurship. Also, exposure to business and management related fields

did not seem to have any impact on enhancing the EI of the students. One of the reasons behind this could be that the start-up wave in India is dependent to a large extent on technology- based start-ups, as a result of which large number of individuals with academic backgrounds in technology and engineering sciences decide to undertake entrepreneurial ventures (Sarkar, 2016; Sharma, 2015).

Having discussed the results obtained from testing the TPB and further adding to the substantial amount of literature highlighting its suitability for predicting intentions the following sections will discuss the impact that family, and its various components have on EI.

8.3 FAMILY AND ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS

This study highlighted that there are several factors that can be considered responsible for development of the right mix of intentions that may lead to entrepreneurial intentions, however it was established in this study that one factor that has not been given its due importance is the role played by Family in the advancement of these intentions. More than a decade ago, Aldrich and Cliff (2003) came out with the family embeddedness perspective where they emphasised that the values, attitudes and norms that are held by family members and existent within the family as a whole, are to a large extent responsible for the intentions and the decision to begin entrepreneurial ventures. Since then some more studies have added to the literature on the role of family in the development of entrepreneurial intention. Studies by Zhao et al (2005), Kickul et al (2008) and Bhageri and Pihie (2010), to name a few, provided evidence for the link between entrepreneurial intentions and family by showing that children that come from families where one or both parents have entrepreneurial backgrounds, have a greater propensity for increased entrepreneurial intentions. This was further substantiated by Kirkwood (2012) where families were presented as ‘incubators’ of the entrepreneurial spirit. Furthermore, apart

from the psychological and moral support, attitudes and values that the family provide, some other factors that have been highlighted in the literature include the availability to financial resources, social capital and work experience (Dyer, 2006; Chua et al, 2009). This led the research to hypothesise that it is not one specific aspect of the family that plays a role in the development of intentions, but in fact, family in its entirety, as a socio-cultural institutions, can influence a young individuals entrepreneurial intentions.

Interestingly, while the literature on the importance of the family has been somewhat limited, there is a lot of research conducted on family businesses and their role in developing intentions, succession, behaviour, transgenerational effects amongst others. Whether it is the presence of entrepreneurial parents in a first generation business or the presence of a large family business background being carried on for generations, both of these are important in providing young individuals with the essential psychological, physical and financial tools that could be needed to develop an entrepreneurial mind set and intentions. Previously, studies by Brockhaus and Horwitz (1986) showed how the conditions within the family business can make young individuals want to opt-out of the entrepreneurial/family business life. For example, the success of family firms has been shown to be dependent on the family, with as high as 69% of closing family firms claim the reasons to be non-financial, but family related (Winter et al, 2004; Danes et al, 2009). This highlights the importance of studying the family dynamics that can underlie the intentions to become an entrepreneur or even continue in the family business.

Other studies by Douglas and Shepherd (2002), Hayward et al (2006) and Zellweger and Astrachan (2008) discuss how various aspects of being brought up in an entrepreneurial family background influences the intentions of young individuals. The values that are passed on and the socialization either in favour or against a certain career path are expected to be present in every family. Hence just like an entrepreneurial background can lead to either positive or negative feelings about entrepreneurship as a

career, similarly young individuals coming from a family of doctors, or engineers or lawyers can also result in them either developing or not developing certain career related intentions based on their experience within their respective families. Hence, the aim of this study was to look at family as an independent unit, not based on its background, and then identify certain common factors that could be responsible for the development of career intentions, in this case specifically for entrepreneurship.

Hence based on the above discussion, this study made use of qualitative and quantitative techniques to identify different aspects within the family that can have an impact on the entrepreneurial intentions of a young individual. Since, it is well accepted that so far one of the best and most reliable model for predicting intentions of an individual is the theory of planned behaviour, it was decided to use the TPB as a theoretical model for this study and establish whether the role played by family on Entrepreneurial intentions is via its ability to modulate the antecedents of EI as described by the TPB, or whether they are capable of direct effects on EI. This study draws on some of the previous suggestions that have been made in order to further improve the predictability of TPB and to overcome some of its drawbacks.

8.3.1 The impact of Support, Encouragement and Socialisation on Entrepreneurial Intentions: *Differential role of parents and grandparents.*

Fayolle (2014) highlighted that one of the key ways in which the family of an individual can influence their entrepreneurial intentions is by the moral, psychological and also financial support along with encouragement that is provided by the parents of the individual. The ethnographic studies conducted in this research showed that families where members were supportive and encouraging towards the idea of entrepreneurship, the younger generation in those families had positive intentions towards entrepreneurship.

This study showed that the positive support and encouragement also stemmed from the ability of the family to provide financial support to the individuals in times of need. This was in line with a lot of previous research that individually highlighted factors such as financial capital and social capital that are linked to the development of EI. The family has been shown to offer their members access to their social capital that is required for acquiring access to external funding, especially for nascent entrepreneurs or those in the decision making stages of starting entrepreneurial ventures (Steier and Greenwood, 2000; Au and Kwan, 2009). Additionally, the support that is offered by family members is essential for helping new firms last longer (Dibrell et al, 2009). Furthermore, these values that exist within families are passed onto the younger generation through the process of socialisation that they are exposed to from a very early age (Carr and Sequeira, 2007). Fayolle (2014) suggested that during the early formative years of an individual, the time spent within the family is responsible for the development of certain personality traits, behaviours, inclinations and likes and dislikes. Previous research also provided evidence for transfer of family values, views and traditions from one member to another, and even between generations, within the family unit (Saporta, 2002). This is usually as a result of the experiences that various members of the family have, and the reinforcement of positive or negative beliefs that stem from those experiences. Therefore, the positive support and socialisation in favour of entrepreneurship is seen in cases where parents have previously had successful past entrepreneurial ventures (Boyd and Vozikis, 1994). The results of the ethnographic study corroborated what was discussed in the literature by clearly showing that families which had previously faced negative experiences with entrepreneurship were less supportive towards the idea of their children undertaking entrepreneurial careers, or experimenting within already existing family business settings. This was supplemented by the presence of entrepreneurs in the social circle of the family. While there was no direct evidence suggesting that having entrepreneurs in the social circle of the family can impact

intentions, it was evident in the ethnographic studies that families usually had individuals following similar life styles and career choices in their social circle, and hence could suggest that this could further fuel their wish that they children should also follow their footsteps.

Kirkwood (2009) highlighted an important aspect in his study on family, by stressing on the fact that the support network within families is not only limited to the parents, but also includes extended family members such as Grandparents, siblings, uncles-aunts and even in-laws. In order to establish the separate role played by parents and other family members, the quantitative part of this research developed structured questions in the survey to tease out the role played by the family members individually. The questionnaire asked questions regarding the support and encouragement and the views and opinions regarding entrepreneurship held by their parents and grandparents individually. A PCA analysis of the various items of the questionnaire revealed that Support and Encouragement and Socialisation were not in fact, two separate constructs as developed following the ethnography, but aimed to capture similar effects relating to the psychological, moral, financial and emotional support that is available to the young generation from their families. However, what the PCA also revealed was that within the family, the parents and grandparents seemed to have a differential impact. This led to the redefining of the constructs of the ethnography into two separate constructs – support and encouragement parents; and support and encouragement grandparents; that were used in the quantitative analysis of the final data and model development. These results indicate that some variations were present in the data that was generated in the qualitative and quantitative studies. One of the reasons why this study decided to follow a mixed-method approach was so that the subjective results from the qualitative study can be further refined and corroborated with a quantitative study. Also, the ethnography was not suitable for identifying differential effects of the various members, which were identified by a more

specific method, such as the survey. Laspita et al (2012) discuss the importance of inter-generation transmission of values relating to entrepreneurial intentions through grandparents. Of the few studies that have been conducted on the role of family, most of these have not addressed how the transmission of these values take place from parents to children. It has been suggested that the grandparents may in fact play an important role in this transmission, especially today when family dynamics are changing rapidly with increased rates of single-parent families, or families where grandparents are called to look after children due to both working parents (Laspita et al, 2012; Simons et al, 1991; Van Ijzendoorn, 1992). Other research has also stressed on the important role played by grandparents in the care-giving and upbringing of children (Attar-Schwartz et al, 2009; Whitbeck et al, 1993). Specifically, the process of socialisation as discussed above and the decisions on career choices have also been shown to be influenced by grandparents as well (Whiston and Keller, 2004; Coall and Hertwig, 2010). Similar to what was seen in the ethnographic studies, the experiences of grandparents that have a previous (or still ongoing) experience in entrepreneurship are often passed on to the children through the stories and anecdotes that are shared between them. 3 joint families formed a part of the qualitative study, and in each of these the younger generation highlighted the important effect that their grandparents had on their upbringing. The quantitative study had around 36% of the respondents coming from joint families, hence suggesting that the results regarding the role of grandparents could be generalizable to a relatively large population. These are important influences on the decisions, attitudes and values that are developed by young individuals (Mauer et al, 2009; Laspita et al, 2012). However, the role played by grandparents has received variable responses in the literature, with some studies not showing any significant impact of grandparents on the entrepreneurial intentions of university students (Peng, Lu and Kang, 2013). Hence, this justified the development of

two separate constructs to measure the impact that each of these can have on the intentions of the youth, as well as the three key antecedents to intentions.

The results of the quantitative study demonstrated that the support and encouragement that is offered by parents can have a direct impact on the Entrepreneurial intentions of the youth ($\beta=0.07$; $p<0.001$), hence proving Hypothesis H1(b). However, no evidence was found for Hypothesis H1(a) which measured the direct impact of support and encouragement from grandparents on entrepreneurial intentions. In addition to the direct effects on EI, this study also looked at the ability of the various aspects of family to impact the three antecedents of EI: personal attitude, perceived behavioural control and subjective norms. The results indicated, that the impact of support and encouragement from parents on EI is partially mediated by personal attitude ($\beta =0.296$, $p <0.001$) and perceived behavioural control ($\beta=0.245$, $p <0.001$), hence proving Hypothesis H2(b) and H3(b). For the support and encouragement from grandparents, it was seen that it had no influence on the PA, however its impact on EI was being fully mediated by PBC ($\beta=0.071$, $p <0.05$). This result showed support for Hypothesis H3(a). While the magnitude of the impact that grandparents have maybe small – its significance still highlights the need to focus in more detail on the subtle role that may be played by grandparents in impacting the behavioural control of young individuals. This becomes even more relevant in today's time with a change in the family structures where several young families are choosing to stay with older generations for support and hence making room for increased interaction between the grandparents and grandchildren (Monserud, 2008). Additionally, while this study only looked at the impact that grandparents may be having on the children, there is evidence to suggest that the parenting styles and methods that are adopted by the parents are to a large extent reminiscent of the parenting they experienced growing up. Hence, adding a further dimension to the role of grandparents (Schneewind and Pfeiffer, 1995). The ongoing support, physical and psychological, that is provided by grandparents to the

generations following theirs is fairly well documented. This 'grandparental-investment' as advocated by Coall and Hertwig (2010) suggests that in developed society's grandparents invest a large amount of time and financial resources on their grandchildren that can impact their cognitive abilities and overall well-being. This supports the findings in this study, that suggest the support and encouragement that stems from grandparents is not only unique as compared to that coming from parents, but can have a significant impact in affecting the perceived behavioural control young individuals have towards entrepreneurial intentions.

Previously, Parada and Villadas (2010) showed that family, through its values and socialisation, can impact the development of certain attitudes, and hence impact intention. This was in line with other studies that suggested the ability of an individual's family to impact the development of specific attitudes towards a behaviour through the presence of family support (Dyer, 1992; Carr and Sequira, 2007). Furthermore, the role of family in impacting the self-efficacy and perceived behavioural control has received relatively more attention in the literature. Presence of entrepreneurial parents, positive past experiences of family members, inspiration and financial and social capital offered as support to young individuals have all been linked to the development of a positive PBC and self-efficacy towards entrepreneurial careers (Kickul et al, 2008; Zhao et al, 2005; Zampetakis, 2008). Also, the impact of family, through its various mechanisms that included support and encouragement, on academic performance and careers was found to be mediated by self-efficacy (Weiser and Riggio, 2010).

Previously, the static and stable nature of the attitude construct within the TPB has been highlighted as being incapable of measuring the more dynamic positive and negative feelings and emotions that are involved in the decision making process. Several scholars have pointed out that the inclusion of anticipated emotions, that are dependent to a large degree on feedback, motivations and appraisals, should be used alongside attitude in order

to capture the entire effect (Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001; Perugini and Connor, 2000; Bagozzi, Baumgartner and Pieters, 1998). This study acknowledges this suggestion and uses the support and encouragement that comes from parents and grandparents as a form of re-enforcement to the attitude that an individual has towards a specific behaviour. The inclusion of this factor, helps to overcome the limitation of a static attitude factor within the TPB. Additionally, as discussed previously the discussion of anecdotes and experiences of family members relating to entrepreneurship can also elicit emotional responses in the individual causing a change in their attitude, or rather the more dynamic anticipated emotions. The importance of this can be seen in the results, which show that the support and encouragement from parents can have a highly significant impact on the intentions of the youth.

Hence one of the contributions of this study is the recognition of some of the issues that have previously been raised regarding the TPB, and incorporating them into a comprehensive model, in order to aim its predictability. The qualitative ethnographic data helped to clearly define the various characteristics and factors that should be included while assessing the support and encouragement offered by the family. To add to this, the quantitative study identified novel impacts of the support and encouragement from parents and grandparents on EI. Additionally, it demonstrated that their impact on EI was being mediated by both PA and PBC.

8.3.2 Role of Experience and Experimentation on Entrepreneurial Intentions

The importance of prior hands-on experience in entrepreneurship has previously shown to be a significant factor that has an impact on the development of entrepreneurial intentions (Cooper, 1995; Linán, 2004; Fayolle, 2014). The experience that is gained by individuals helps to add to the overall knowledge regarding the field of entrepreneurship and this increased awareness is essential for the decision making process in the future

(Linán, 2004). Additionally, along with experience, the presence of role models, especially those within the family, have a significant impact on the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals (Mathews and Moser, 1995; Carrier, 2005). The ethnographies highlighted that for a young individual, the initial exposure to entrepreneurial experience usually is as a result of being involved in either the family business or some form of entrepreneurial venture being undertaken by a family member or relative. In the absence of this exposure through the family, it was unlikely that the young individual would go out to look for entrepreneurship experience outside the family. Hence based on this and the understanding from the literature, the presence of any past experience gained through the family and the presence of role models was one of the key themes that developed and were assessed during the ethnographic studies of the families. None of the individuals indicated the presence of any strong positive role models in this study, although there were some cases where the negative views and opinions that were held by individuals that the younger generation of the family looked up to, led to reduced desirability towards entrepreneurial careers. The ethnographic study suggested that the presence of past experience and role models, could have an impact on the personal attitude and the perceived behavioural control of the individuals. In order to further ascertain this relationship, the Experience and Experimentation construct was set up with the aim of establishing the impact this had on the three antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions and also, intentions directly.

The quantitative study revealed that past experience in entrepreneurship has a highly significant direct impact on entrepreneurial intentions of the individuals ($\beta=0.09$, $p<0.001$), providing support for Hypothesis H1(c). This result was in line with a lot of research in the past that has indicated the importance of past experience in the development of entrepreneurial intentions (Backburn and Curran, 1993; Drennan, Kennedy and Renfrow, 2005). Most recent studies by Pomery et al (2009) and Sommer and Haig (2011)

add to the increasing body of knowledge and the continuing relevance of past experience on the development of entrepreneurial intentions.

Previously, Bandura (1986) had highlighted that ‘enactive mastery’ or hands-on experience is essential in influencing self-efficacy of individuals. This has been reiterated by Scherer et al (1991) and Linán and Chen (2009) who also suggest that past experience and role models can influence the PBC, and potentially also have an influence on PA and SN of the individuals. In fact, it can be argued that the extent of the impact that past experience has on PBC and PA may be greater when the experience is as a result of the family, as the reassurance that the family is supportive towards entrepreneurship may make the behaviour more attractive to the young individuals. This was corroborated by the quantitative studies in this research, as the impact of past experience was found to be partially mediated by both personal attitude ($\beta=0.156$, $p < 0.001$) and perceived behavioural control ($\beta=0.410$, $p < 0.001$). A recent study on university students by Devonish et al (2010) suggested that the past experience with entrepreneurship is linked to the feasibility and the desirability, and is able to impact EI via its effect on these two key antecedents to EI. The results from previous studies are similar when the experience stems from exposure to family businesses as well (Zellweger, Seiger and Halter, 2011; Falck, Heblich and Luedemann, 2012). In most cases, this exposure via family businesses is also responsible for influencing the individual’s desirability and perceived feasibility towards entrepreneurship (Basu and Virick, 2008; Guerrero, Rialp and Urbano, 2008). However, while the impact of past experience was proven in this study, the quantitative analysis was unable to provide any evidence with regards to the role played by role models, either from within the family or outside. The item that was developed relating to the presence of role models for the individual, was one of the few items that had to be removed in the EFA while trying to obtain a good-fit model. As a result of this, the final construct

that was tested in the survey and the results from it only indicate the importance of past experience relating to entrepreneurial activities.

An interesting observation that was made from the results of this study, was that the impact of experience and experimentation on PBC was one of the strongest relationships in the entire model ($\beta=0.410$, $p < 0.001$), and was second only to the relationship between personal attitude and EI ($\beta=0.490$, $p < 0.001$). Hence, the quantitative results of this research were successful in identifying and establishing the importance of past experience in the development of the perceived feasibility, and in turn the entrepreneurial intentions amongst the youth. These results imply that an important part of developing the entrepreneurial intentions of the youth should include involving the youth in entrepreneurial activities and processes from an early age. This exposure to entrepreneurship will help in developing the manner in which the youth will look at entrepreneurial careers and will increase the entrepreneurial intentions. This is of particular importance for families with entrepreneurial backgrounds and family businesses – as they could enhance the entrepreneurial intention in their younger generation by involving them in the business from a young age.

Entrepreneurial literature has time and again highlighted the importance of past behaviour and habit in the development of entrepreneurial intentions (Bagozzi and Kimmel, 1995; Chen and Bargh, 1999). In fact, some studies have included the effect of habit within the TPB and have found it to improve the relationship between intention and behaviour (Bruijn et al, 2007; Sheeran, 2002). This study approached the concept of habit and past behaviour using the construct experience and experimentation. It suggests that if young individuals within the family have been exposed to an entrepreneurial career from a young age due to the exposure to a family business, then they would have over time develop almost a habit to deal with the uncertainties, risk and other factors that are associated with entrepreneurial careers, that another individual not having any experience

would lack. In fact, Ajzen (1985) recognised the importance of habit when he suggested that if a behaviour has both positive and negative qualities, then an individual is more likely to choose a more familiar or routinised option (Ouellette and Wood, 1998). Even though the PBC construct is meant to measure any effect relating to past behaviour and habit, it is evident in this study that experience and experimentation has a highlight significant direct impact on EI, apart from the mediating effect via PBC and PA.

8.3.3 Role of Family Image on Entrepreneurial Intentions

While, the previously discussed results concerning the role played by an individual's family on the development of their entrepreneurial intentions have relied on prior work done over the years on factors that influence EI, an interesting observation that was made following the qualitative study, and then tested and upheld in the quantitative study was the impact that maintaining a 'family image' has on the EI of the individual. The qualitative results showed that in almost all the families that were observed, there was a common tendency in which the senior/older members of the family referred to the 'image' of the family and/or of the business. Most of them expressed concerns that certain actions if undertaken by the younger generation within the family, could have potential negative consequences for the family image and impact the way in which the society, and their friends viewed the entire family. Similar concepts of a 'collective self-esteem' and 'social identity' have been discussed previously where individuals within a social group, such as a family, are expected to act in accordance to the views and opinions of all the members (Tagiuri and Davis, 1996, Bagozzi and Lee, 2002). In order to further quantify this trend that was observed, the survey had questions aimed at identifying how much young individuals keen social images in their mind while making decisions about their life and careers. The quantitative results demonstrated that image did not have a direct impact on the EI of the individuals. However, PBC was found to fully mediate the impact that

image had on the EI ($\beta=0.069$, $p < 0.05$). This suggested that cases in which there was constant policing of the behaviour of young individuals by the family members, and individuals felt the need to conform to the values, views and opinions of their family members, had an impact on their perceived feasibility of the entrepreneurial behaviour. If, for example, starting a business was against the 'image' or identity of the families, the chances were that the young individuals would have a reduced perceived feasibility of that behaviour, and hence reduced intentions. Akerlof and Kranton (2000) had suggested that career choices can at times be explained based on an individual's 'self-image'. They discussed that following careers that matched with the individuals' ideals and identity, add great utility and value to those choices. This concept can be extended to include the idea of 'family-image' and 'family-identity' rather than just 'self-image'. This would then imply that it would give young individuals more value if they decided to follow paths and careers that adhere to the ideals and identity of their family. In fact, the entire idea of intergenerational transfer of entrepreneurial skills and values can be related to the idea of entrepreneurial identity that is passed on (Falck, Heblich and Luedemann, 2012). Tajfel (1978) had described the generation of an individual's 'social-identity'. Individuals are aware that they are members or part of certain social groups, such as a family, and they evaluate the emotional significance of belonging to that group and develop an identity so as to fit into the group. It has been suggested that having a social identity, belonging to a group and acting as a part of a group has an impact on an individual's self-enhancement by improving self-esteem as well as the group's collective-esteem (Crocker et al, 1994). However, the evidence for this has been rather inconclusive (Long and Spears, 1997; Farnham, Greenwald and Banaji, 1999). Furthermore, the predecessor theory to the TPB, the theory of reasoned action (TRA) described normative beliefs as the motivations to comply with social referents and defined this as the antecedents to subjective norms (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Also, the need to conform to the group is higher in cultures that are

more collectivist and interdependent, such as in India. In such cultures, individuals tend to act more in favour of the group rather than the self to promote group welfare and maintain relations (Bagozzi and Lee, 2002). A lot of research has looked at the impact of social identity in relation to family businesses and family-firms, not much research can be found on the need to conform to the image of the family outside family businesses (Dyer and Whetten, 2006; Arregle et al, 2007; Zellweger, Eddleston, and Kellermanns, 2010).

Entrepreneurship literature has previously highlighted the importance of a trait-like approach to predicting entrepreneurship which suggests that entrepreneurs can be identified based on certain specific personality traits or characteristics that they possess. The concept of self-identity is similar as in this the individual themselves assign certain traits to themselves based on how they want to be perceived socially as well as personally (Hagger et al, 2007). These perceptions are then important in guiding an individual's decisions to act in specific manner. This study, extends this concept further and suggests that the self-identity that a young individual develops is not limited to their perceptions but also on the how they perceive the expectations of their family. Therefore the self-identity that an individual develops is a combination of the traits and characteristics that the individual believes his family would want him to display and this is plays an important role in the development of their internal control over a behaviour. It is also worth considering that these traits or identity that individuals assign to themselves might be a manifestation of the desires that they or their family members have towards a specific behaviour. Therefore, by including a construct that measures the impact of this image conformance, this study provides a comprehensive model that takes into consideration several key drawbacks of the TPB and attempts to explain them by linking them to an individual's family.

Hence, this study demonstrated that not only did the individuals within families with businesses feel the pressure to conform to their family, but even those in other

professions often felt compelled to act in ways that they felt was acceptable to the families. It can be envisaged that the young individuals probably felt that they would get more support – psychological, physical and financial, if they conformed to the wishes of their family. This could be considered to be the reason behind the positive impact on the perceived feasibility of the behaviour as well.

8.4 THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTION

This study has relied on knowledge and information from a wide range of academic fields that include managerial literature, social anthropology, psychological literature, career literature and entrepreneurship literature with the aim of providing a more comprehensive view of the entrepreneurial intention prediction model. In the initial chapters of this research it was pointed out that the current literature on EI and its antecedents is rather limited, primarily due to reliance on a limited number of antecedents to EI, and use of individual factors as the drivers of EI rather than using multi-dimensional models with several constructs to study their impact on EI (Fini et al, 2009). The aim of this study was to attempt to fill in this gap in the literature and focus on certain factors that have been talked about occasionally in entrepreneurship literature, but have not been conceptualised into a complete model to test their effect on EI.

For years the literature on entrepreneurship has been the preserve of scholars working on western countries and large innovation-driven economies like the USA, Germany and UK. The 21st century has begun to see a change, with a lot of innovation and entrepreneurship research shifting to emerging economies of Brazil, China and India (Prabhu and Jain, 2015). One of the main contributions of this study, rests in the theoretical contribution to makes to the expanding body of knowledge of entrepreneurship in India. This study tests the TPB (Ajzen, 1991) and upholds the predictions of the model. Also, like several other studies in the past, this study also found that the subjective norms

construct was statistically insignificant for predicting EI (Armitage and Connor, 2001). In this study, the TPB was found to explain 55% of the variation in Intention. The meta-analysis by Armitage and Connor (2001) showed that TPB accounts for around 39% variation in intentions. The addition of the family related factors to this existed model increased the amount of variation explained to 57%. However, the four family factors by themselves were found to explain 24% of the variation in intentions. While, the position of the TPB has been largely uncontested when it comes to predicting entrepreneurial intentions, it has time and again been faced with some criticisms. These have included discussions on the addition of an affective component to attitude, the lack of attention to past behaviour, and issues surrounding self-identity. This study has attempted to bring the critics and the proponents of the theory together, by suggesting that all these factors can in fact be coordinated into a complete framework where the validity of the TPB is not only upheld, but to an extent improved by the addition of some of these other factors. Additions to existing knowledge in terms of the important role played by family support and encouragement in adding to the affective component of personal attitude, past experience and behaviour and the importance of a self-identity that is manifested in the form of an image that needs to be upheld, are believed to be important in the development of a more comprehensive model that will address some of the key criticisms of the theory.

This study was able to show that EI can also be explained by certain factors that are dependent on the individuals' family, and socialisation within the family. The literature is rife with studies that have considered cultural factors and institutions that can impact entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial intentions by using relatively broad themes, this study is one of the few studies that suggests that the unit of analysis should be narrowed down to individual families, since it is only at this basic unit of analysis that transmission of any broader cultural values takes place. The study demonstrated that the antecedents to EI as described by Ajzen mediate, either partially or completely, the impact that some of

these family related factors have on EI. Hence this study was successful in identifying some novel relationships and factors that have been included for the first time in a comprehensive model that can be used to predict EI and further understand the factors that are important in the development of these intentions.

Finally, this study has been instrumental in bridging the research gap that exists between the extent of literature available for developed, western countries and emerging markets such as India. The Indian economy is worth 2.05 trillion US Dollars per year and is an important world trading partner (Worldbankorg, 2016; Wilson and Purushothaman, 2003). As per Bain and company (2012) India is quickly becoming one of the most sought after destinations for venture capitalists, not only amongst the emerging economies but throughout the world. The year 2014 saw 3100 start-ups being set up in India, making it not only the fastest growing but the third largest area in the world for start-ups. By 2020, the start-ups in India would have reached 11,500 and would employ almost 250,000 people (Agarwal and Mishra, 2014). Hence, it is only justified that more entrepreneurial research is conducted on the Indian population to establish not just the drivers but also the inhibitors that might be present within the socio-cultural set-up of the country. For a large and diverse country like India, it might be suspected that research on just one city, New Delhi, cannot be representative of the entire country. However, the reasons for choosing New Delhi and the National Capital Region (NCR) that include Gurgaon and Noida, for this research are multi-fold. Despite its large size, 78% of the start-ups in India originate from just 3 cities – Delhi-NCR, Mumbai and Bangalore. Delhi-NCR has the maximum number of business accelerators and incubators in the whole of India (Joshi and Satyanarayana, 2014). One of the world's largest venture capital investors, InnovenCapital, claimed Delhi_NCR to be the most sought after destination for Indian start-ups (InnoveCapital, 2016). In addition to this, Delhi being the capital city of India, attracts people from all over the country in search for better opportunities. It is also home to some of India's best academic institutions, thus

attracting large number of talented young individuals from across the country (James, 2015). Keeping these factors in mind, the Delhi-NCR region was considered most suitable for conducting a research on understanding the EI of the youth of the country.

8.5 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

As discussed in the initial chapters of this study, promotion of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial activity is essential for the growth and economic development of every economy, especially for emerging economies such as India. As a result of this established importance, any research that looks into identifying factors that can be used to either promote or impede the development of entrepreneurship in individuals is of great practical significance. The interest in research surrounding the characteristics, views, beliefs and entrepreneurs' cognitions have been carried out consistently in the literature, however academics have begun to now rightly focus their attention on uncovering the factors that contribute to the decision and pre-decision making stages for entrepreneurs. In fact, intention-based models for entrepreneurship are considered to be important tools for practitioners, advisors, consultants and entrepreneurs themselves. These models help to provide a clear lens that offer individuals an insight into the reasons behind the decisions being made, their motives, their perceptions and inhibitions. With the knowledge obtained from various intention models, such as that discussed in this study, current and potential entrepreneurs can examine the factors that will be important in the development of their intentions and future behaviour. They will be able to identify the reasons behind their inhibitions and will be able to confront them practically.

Furthermore, from the perspective of policy makers and practitioners, promotion of entrepreneurship is of increasing interest as well. Based on the current economic environment that is seen around the globe, it is evident that conventional ways of employment are not going to be sufficient to sustain the growing workforce. This is

especially true for a country like India with a population of 1.2 billion, and growing. Currently 3 out of 4 urban male, under the age of 29 is unemployed in India, despite them holding at least a certificate or diploma level of education (National Sample Survey, 2013). The GEM report on India (2014) has indicated that the government regulations and policies are one of the main constraints to entrepreneurship in India. This has led to an increase in interest by the government bodies to further improve and develop their existing systems, with an aim of promoting entrepreneurship in India. Another important point that was highlighted in the report was that the lack of interest, awareness and knowledge of the youth about entrepreneurship is the 'Achilles Heel' (p.7) of the Indian entrepreneurship programs. Majority of the youth, as well as the society in general, consider entrepreneurship as a back-up option, only to be considered in the absence of other, more suitable career options such as medicine and engineering. Hence, in order for the government policies and programs to have real benefit, there is need to bring about a change in the psyche of the people of India. Hence, this research suggests that policies and programs should be focussed towards promoting trust and confidence, in entrepreneurship as a potential career option, amongst the family members of young individuals. The important role played by an individuals' family in developing their EI, this research has pointed out gaps in the way current policies and programs are targeting entrepreneurship development. The government of India has focussed on several financial and procedural factors such as microfinance institutions and vocational programmes to promote entrepreneurship, but these have not received much success, especially when it comes to improving the societal and cultural factors required for promoting entrepreneurship. This study has shown that the environment provided by the family is essential in determining whether young individuals will choose to follow the path of entrepreneurship. Hence, for practitioners this study suggests that educational programs, tax incentives, reduced red

tape and easier entry and exit from new start-ups are important for gaining the support from the family of youth entrepreneurs and should be focussed on.

With the changing forces of globalisation modifying the economic landscape and constant technological advancements, the uncertainty in the world economy is increasing. The importance of youth entrepreneurship has never been more relevant, as it is expected to help meet the growing economic, social and environmental needs and challenges. While different countries have different policies and opinions on entrepreneurship, there is more or less consensus on the importance of promoting youth entrepreneurship, especially as a mechanism for targeting the growing youth unemployment. The International Labour Organisation predicts that the unemployment in youth is going to continue to rise in the coming years, predominantly as a result of the economic slowdown of the emerging economies in 2016-2017 (ILO, 2016). The results from this study could potentially help to serve as a guide to practitioners, academics and scholars around the world – and especially so in emerging economies – to point out that while the policies that are aimed towards the youth might be useful in promoting entrepreneurship, there is also a need to introduce more focussed policies at a broader societal level, to help educate the older generation about the importance of entrepreneurship, with the hope that they would then transmit this down to coming generations and promote a culture that is supportive and encouraging towards entrepreneurship rather than suspicious and sceptical.

8.6 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE WORK

As is the case with every kind of research, this study also has its set of limitations, which pave the way for future research on this topic. The first part of this research uses data from ethnographic studies that are qualitative in nature and hence have some inherent limitations associated with them. Some of these limitations that have been discussed previously in the chapter on qualitative methods include the reliance on a small number of samples and the anecdotal nature of the data, both of which combined lead to the lack of generalisability of the results (Hohenthal, 2006). However, it is hoped that the breadth and quality of rich, detailed and descriptive data that was gathered at the end of the ethnographic study would compensate for some of these limitations that are inherent to qualitative research. In fact, some of these limitations might be the reason behind some differences that exist between the qualitative and quantitative studies in this research. Due to limitations arising from time and resources, the ethnographic study was conducted only on six families coming from Delhi-NCR region, and needless to say, these families are not entirely representative of entrepreneurial views and opinions of all Indian families. Future research can be conducted on extending this study to include families from different regions of India, that can be matched on income, profession, background history amongst many other factors, in order to come to a conclusion on what various aspects of family are involved in the entrepreneurial decision making process.

Some of the limitations that emerged following the qualitative study were addressed during the second stage of this research, in the quantitative study. Firstly, the survey results are based on a cross-sectional model. Future studies can include the use of longitudinal research models in order to track the entrepreneurial behaviour of the students once they have left university. It will allow the researcher to directly measure whether the presence of EI led to the behaviour at a future time point. Although, no endogeneity related issues were observed in this study, there is always a possibility that a third variable might

be causing the effect on both the dependent as well as the independent variable. The use of a longitudinal study might be useful in addressing this issue as well. Also, comparing the career paths and outcomes of individuals with low and high levels of entrepreneurship could be tested.

Even though the construct and items under each of these constructs were found to uphold all the requirements relating to reliability and validity, some of the constructs had items with correlated error terms suggesting that there was something else in common between them other than the latent variable they were meant to capture. Since the correlated error terms were within-factors there is the possibility of a response bias in the results. This is often the case when items on a scale are very similar to each other. One way to possibly improve this in the future would be to separate out similar questions that are designed to measure the same variable in the questionnaire. This will reduce the chances of any response bias and could help prevent the use of correlated error terms.

Similar to the problem faced in the qualitative study, the surveys were also limited to data collected from one city, Delhi, in India. A future study could increase the number of colleges and universities from Delhi and also include regional analysis and comparisons from other cities in other regions of India. Finally, the use of a student sample could be considered as another limitation of the study. Even though students are commonly used as samples for studying entrepreneurial intentions, the extent to which their intentions represent those of potential entrepreneurs can be debated.

8.7 CONCLUSION

The aim of this research study was to draw the attention of the academic world to some vital factors that have not been given their due importance with respect to their impact on the development of entrepreneurial intentions. The study began by stressing on the already established importance of entrepreneurship in the economic growth of all countries – developed and developing. It went on to provide evidence to support the existing views in the literature that the Theory of Planned Behaviour is indeed one of the most reliable models for predicting intentional behaviour, such as Entrepreneurship. However, despite its dominant position, there is still some scope for improvement. This study has attempted to further add to the TPB, by including some essential factors that are dependent on the individuals family, with the aim of making a more comprehensive model that can not only predict the decision making process, but also help to explain how and why these intentions develop and how they can be promoted.

This study began by showing the suitability of the TPB in the Indian context. The results obtained were similar to those that have been discussed previously in the literature, substantiating the dominant position of TPB. The study made use of ethnographic studies conducted on six Indian families, to develop a theoretical model that identified five different themes within the Indian family set-up, each of which had an impact on one or more of the antecedents to EI as described in the TPB. This qualitative part of the study was important as it provided a coherent and almost tangible structure to the concept of ‘Family’ that is often categorised and grouped with other demographic variables in the study of entrepreneurship and intention literature. The results indicated that various aspects of an individual’s family – the support and encouragement; the extent of socialisation to entrepreneurship; past experience gained as a result of entrepreneurial

exposure offered by the family; the importance given to image and other ancillary factors such as the role of women, support from siblings etc. are all individual factors that can impact EI via their differential impacts on PBC, PA and SN.

The theoretical model that evolved following this qualitative study formed the basis of the quantitative survey that used the constructs developed from the ethnographies in order to generate more generalisable data. Large scale student surveys were conducted in the second stage of this study to test whether the various aspects of family are reliable and valid, and whether they can be used to determine the EI of the youth. The results of the study demonstrated that family, via its various aspects, can influence the development of EI, sometimes directly, and sometimes via the mediating effect of PBC and PA. This study highlighted the importance of parental support and encouragement along with past exposure and experience relating to entrepreneurship for promoting the development of EI. These were found to not only have direct significant impacts on EI, but their impacts were also mediated by PA and PBC. Additionally, moderate support was found in favour of the role played by the support and encouragement offered by grandparents. The need to conform with a social image and the ideas relating to family identity were also found to be significant, as their impact on EI was being mediated by PBC.

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APPENDIX 1: DATA CODING AND DELETED ITEMS

Personal Attitude

Code	Question
PAa	Being an entrepreneur implies more advantages than disadvantages to me
PAb	A career as entrepreneur is attractive for me
PAc	If I had the opportunity, I'd like to start a firm
PAd	If I had the resources, I'd like to start a firm
PAe	Being an entrepreneur would give me great satisfactions for me
PAf	Amongst any other career option, I would rather be an entrepreneur

Subjective Norm

If you decided to create a venture/business/company, what would the below mentioned people think about your decision? Mark 1 for indicating total disapproval and 7 indicating total approval.

Code	Question	ITEMS REMOVED AND WHY
SNa	Your father	
SNb	Your mother	
SNe	Other relatives	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
SNd	Your grandfather	
SNe	Your grandmother	
SNf	Your friends	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
SNg	Your colleagues/classmates	

How do you think Entrepreneurship as a career is considered in comparison to other careers, by the people mentioned below? Mark 1 if entrepreneurship as a career is considered significantly worse than others and 7 if it is considered significantly better than other careers. Mark N/A if the statement is not applicable to you.

Code	Question	ITEMS REMOVED AND WHY
SNh	Your father	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
SNi	Your mother	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
SNj	Other relatives	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
SNk	Your grandfather	
SNl	Your grandmother	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
SNm	Your friends	
SNn	Your colleagues/classmates	

Code	Question	ITEMS REMOVED AND WHY
SNo	Are you in regular contact with anyone who has started their own venture/business/company	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
SNp	If you answered Yes to the question above, indicate whether you think these people have been successful/unsuccessful. Mark 1 for indicating totally unsuccessful and 7 indicating totally successful	

Perceived Behavioural Control

Code	Question
PBCa	To start a firm would be easy for me
PBCb	To keep a firm working would be easy for me
PBCc	I am prepared to start a firm
PBCd	I can control the creation process of a new firm
PBCe	I know the necessary practical details to start a firm
PBCf	I know how to develop an entrepreneurial project
PBCg	If I tried to start a firm, I would have a high probability/chance of succeeding

Intention

Code	Question
INa	Have you ever seriously considered becoming an Entrepreneur/business owner?
INb	I am ready to do anything to be an entrepreneur
INc	My professional goal is to become an entrepreneur
INd	I will make every effort to start and run my own firm
INe	I am determined to create a firm in the future
INf	I have very seriously thought of starting a firm
INg	I have the firm intention/objective/goal/target to start a firm some day

Socialisation

Code	Question	ITEMS REMOVED AND WHY
Sa	Please indicate your father's occupation.	
Sb	Please indicate your mothers occupation	
Sc	Has anybody in your family been involved in an entrepreneurial venture	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
Sd	My father's past experience relating to entrepreneurship was positive	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
Se	My mother's past experience relating to entrepreneurship was positive	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
Sf	Other relatives past experience relating to entrepreneurship was positive	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
Sg	My grandfather's past experience relating to entrepreneurship was positive	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
Sh	My grandmother's past experience relating to entrepreneurship was positive	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
Si	My father considers entrepreneurship to be a good career option	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
Sj	My mother considers entrepreneurship to be a good career option	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
Sk	Other relatives consider entrepreneurship a good career option	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
Sl	My grandfather considers entrepreneurship to be a good career option	
Sm	My grandmother considers entrepreneurship to be a good career option	
Sn	My family has entrepreneurs/business owners as friends	

Support And Encouragement

Code	Question	ITEMS REMOVED AND WHY
SEa	We, as a family, are very close to each other	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
SEb	Somebody in my family will be able to organize money for me to start my own venture	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
SEc	My father would support me if I decided to start my own business	
SEd	My mother would support me if I decided to start my own business	
SEe	Other relatives would support me if I decided to start my own business	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
SEf	My grandfather would support me if I decided to start my own business	
SEg	My grandmother would support me if I decided to start my own business	
SEh	My father encourages me when we discuss new ideas and possible business ventures at home	
SEi	My mother encourages me when we discuss new ideas and possible business ventures at home	
SEj	Other relatives encourages me when we discuss new ideas and possible business ventures at home	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
SEk	My grandfather encourages me when we discuss new ideas and possible business ventures at home	
SEl	My grandmother encourages me when we discuss new ideas and possible business ventures at home	

Experience And Experimentation

Code	Question	ITEMS REMOVED AND WHY
EEa	I have experience of working in a new venture/business/organisation	
EEb	I have experience of starting my own venture/business/company?	
EEc	I have helped family/friends in starting/setting up a new venture/business/company.	
EEd	I had no choice but to be a part of an entrepreneurial venture/business due to my family/circumstances.	
EEe	Do you have a professional role model who is an entrepreneur	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors

Family Support Structure – (Entire construct removed after initial EFA)

Code	Question
FSSa	Do you have any financially independent siblings
FSSb	If you started an entrepreneurial venture, how confident are you that you will be able to arrange the financial resources for it from within your family? Indicate from 1 (Not confident at all) to 7 (Totally confident)
FSSc	Women in my family follow traditional roles when it comes to household chores.
FSSd	Important family decisions are taken by my father or other male members of the house
FSSe	Important family decisions are taken by my mother or other female members of the house
FSSf	Men in my family help out in the family chores
FSSg	Decisions in the family are taken only after all members consent

Image

Code	Question	ITEMS REMOVED AND WHY
IMn	Please indicate what you think is the best career option for you in the future	
IMo	Please indicate what your friends think is the best career option for you in the future	
IMp	Please indicate what your family think is the best career option for you in the future	
IMa	If you started a new venture/business/company and it was unsuccessful. It would negatively affect your image/impression in the eyes of your family members. Indicate 1 for total disagreement and 7 for total agreement	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
IMb	If you started a new venture/business/company and it was unsuccessful. It would negatively affect your image/impression in the eyes of your family members. Indicate 1 for total disagreement and 7 for total agreement	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
IMc	I agree to the rules set out by my family	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors

IMd	It is important for me to ensure that my family is not embarrassed by my actions	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
IMe	It is important for me to ensure that my friends are not embarrassed by my actions	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
IMf	I will not follow a career that my family thinks is not suitable for me	Removed due to low factor loading and cross loading on other factors
IMg	I will not follow a career that my friends think is not suitable for me	
IMh	It is important for me to live up to the impressions that my family has about me	
IMi	It is important for me to live up to the impressions that my friends have about me	Removed due to discriminant validity issues
IMj	Entrepreneurial activity clashes with the culture of my country	
IMk	Entrepreneurs role in the economy is not recognised	
IMl	People don't consider an entrepreneurial career acceptable	
IMm	It is commonly thought that Entrepreneurs take advantage of others	

APPENDIX 2: QUESTIONNAIRE

* 1. Gender

☐

Male

☐

Female

☐

Prefer not to say

* 2. Age

* 3. Please indicate your current field of study

☐

Biological Science

☐

Social Science

☐

Management

☐

Commerce

☐

Medicine

☐

Engineering

Other (please specify)

4. What is the total annual income in your household (including contributions from all individuals working within the family)

☐

Upto Rs. 1,00,000

☐

Rs.1,00,000 - Rs.5,00,000

☐

Rs.5,00,000 - Rs10,00,000

☐

Above Rs.10,00,000

☐

Prefer not to say

* 5. Marital status

☐

Single

☐

Married

* 6. Please indicate the number of brothers/sisters you have.

* 7. Please indicate if you live in a joint-family.

☐

Yes

☐

No

* 8. Briefly tell us what do you plan to do after you graduate?

☐

Get a job

☐

Start my own venture/business

☐

Join my family business/company

☐

Take a break

☐

Study further

☐

Not sure yet

* 9. Would you be willing to complete another follow-up survey six months to one year from now?

☐

Yes

☐

No

☐

Maybe

10. Kindly provide us with your email address and/or phone number.

.....

- * 11. Indicate your level of agreement with the following sentences. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the given sentence.
(An Entrepreneur is someone who decides to start their own venture/business/company out of choice, and not out of compulsion or the lack of other options)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Being an entrepreneur implies more advantages than disadvantages to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A career as an entrepreneur is attractive for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I had the opportunity, I'd like to start a firm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I had the resources, I'd like to start a firm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Being an entrepreneur would give me great satisfaction	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Amongst any other career option, I would rather be an entrepreneur	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

- * 12. Indicate your level of agreement with the following sentences. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the given sentence.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I had the opportunity, I'd like to start a social organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It would give me great satisfaction to help underprivileged people in society	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Amongst any other career option, I would rather do something to help the underprivileged	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel compassion for underprivileged people in society	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

- * 13. If you decided to create a venture/business/company, what would the below mentioned people think about your decision? Mark 1 for indicating total disapproval and 7 for indicating total approval. Mark N/A if the statement is not applicable to you.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
Your father	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your mother	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other relatives	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your grandfather	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your grandmother	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your batchmates/classmates	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

- * 14. Indicate your level of agreement with the following sentences. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the given sentence.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My family would support me if I wanted to start an organization to help underprivileged people in society	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I planned to address a significant societal problem my family would back me up.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is possible to attract investors for an organization that wants to solve social problems.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

- * 15. How do you think Entrepreneurship as a career is considered in comparison to other careers, by the people mentioned below? Mark 1 if entrepreneurship as a career is considered significantly worse than other careers and 7 if it is considered significantly better than other careers. Mark N/A if the statement is not applicable to you.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
Your Father	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your Mother	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other relatives	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your Grandfather	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your Grandmother	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your batchmates/classmates	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

- * 16. Are you in regular contact with anyone who has started their own venture/business/company?

☐ Yes ☐ No

- * 17. If you answered yes to the question above, indicate whether you think these people have been successful/unsuccessful. Mark 1 for indicating totally unsuccessful and 7 for indicating totally successful.

☐ 1 ☐ 4 ☐ 7
☐ 2 ☐ 5 ☐ Do not know
☐ 3 ☐ 6 ☐ N/A

18. Based on the above question, please explain briefly why you think they were successful/unsuccessful.

.....

* 19. To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your abilities to become an entrepreneur/business owner? Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the given sentence.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To start a firm would be easy for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To keep a firm working would be easy for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am prepared to start a firm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can control the creation process of a new firm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I know the necessary practical details to start a firm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I know how to develop an entrepreneurial project	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I tried to start a firm, I would have a high probability/chance of succeeding	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 20. To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your abilities to become a social entrepreneur/business owner? Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the given sentence.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I could figure out a way to help solve the problems that society faces	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am convinced that I personally can make a contribution to address societal challenges if I put my mind to it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Solving societal problems is something each of us can contribute to.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 21. Have you ever seriously considered becoming an Entrepreneur/business owner?

☐ Yes

☐ No

* 22. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the given sentence.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am ready to do anything to be an entrepreneur	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My professional goal is to become an entrepreneur	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I will make every effort to start and run my own firm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am determined to create a firm in the future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have very seriously thought of starting a firm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have the firm intention/objective/goal/target to start a firm some day	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 23. Have you ever seriously considered becoming a Social Entrepreneur/ Social enterprise owner?
(A social entrepreneur is someone who decides to start his/her own venture (either as not-for-profit organization or as a business) with the aim to respond to social needs and problems.)

☐ Yes ☐ No

* 24. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the given sentence.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am ready to do anything to be a social entrepreneur	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I will make every effort to start and run my own social enterprise	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have very seriously thought of starting a social enterprise	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have the firm intention/objective/goal/target to start a social enterprise some day	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have an idea for a social enterprise on which I plan to act in the future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I expect that at some point in the future I will be involved in launching an organization that aims to solve social problems.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 25. Please indicate your father's occupational background. If retired or deceased, then his last occupation.

.....

* 26. Please indicate your mother's occupational background. If retired or deceased, then her last occupation.

.....

* 27. Has anybody in your family been involved in an entrepreneurial venture (i.e owned or started a business)?

☐

Yes

☐

No

* 28. If you answered "Yes" to the previous question, then please indicate who (relationship) has been involved in an entrepreneurial venture in your family. If you answered 'No', then write N/A and move to the next question.

.....

* 29. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have experience of working in a new venture/business/organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have experience of starting my own venture/business/company	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have helped family/friends in starting/setting up a new venture/business/company	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I had no choice but to be a part of an entrepreneurial venture/business due to my family/circumstances	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 30. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have some experience working with social problems	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have volunteered or otherwise worked with social organizations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I know a lot about social organizations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 31. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
We, as a family, are very close to each other	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Somebody in my family will be able to organize money for me to start my own venture	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 32. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the statements. Mark N/A if the statement is not applicable to you.

(Past experience is defined as an event/occurrence/contact/observation which leaves an impression/forms an opinion.)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
My father's past experience relating to entrepreneurship was positive.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My mother's past experience relating to entrepreneurship was positive.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other relative's past experience relating to entrepreneurship was positive.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My grandfather's past experience relating to entrepreneurship was positive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My grandmother's past experience relating to entrepreneurship was positive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My father considers entrepreneurship to be a good career option.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My mother considers entrepreneurship to be a good career option.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other relatives considers entrepreneurship to be a good career option.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My grandfather considers entrepreneurship to be a good career option.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My grandmother considers entrepreneurship to be a good career option.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My family has entrepreneurs/business owners as friends.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 33. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the statements. Mark N/A if the statement is not applicable to you.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
My father would support me if I decided to start my own business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My mother would support me if I decided to start my own business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other relatives would support me if I decided to start my own business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My grandfather would support me if I decided to start my own business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My grandmother would support me if I decided to start my own business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My father encourages me when we discuss new ideas and possible business ventures at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My mother encourages me when we discuss new ideas and possible business ventures at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other relatives encourage me when we discuss new ideas and possible business ventures at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My grandfather encourages me when we discuss new ideas and possible business ventures at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My grandmother encourages me when we discuss new ideas and possible business ventures at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 34. Do you have a role model who is an entrepreneur? If 'Yes' please mention who in the space provided below.

☐ Yes

☐ No

Who?

* 35. Do you have any financially independent brother/sisters (i.e. those with a source of income other than that of your parents)?

☐ Yes

☐ No

* 36. If you start a new venture/business/company, how confident are you that you will be able to arrange the finances for it from within your family? Indicate from 1 (Not confident at all) to 7 (Totally confident).

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7

* 37. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Women in my family follow traditional roles when it comes to household work/chores	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Important family decisions are taken by my father or other male members of the house	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Important family decisions are taken by my mother or other female members of the house	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Men in my family help out in the household work/chores	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Decisions in the family are taken only after all members agree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 38. Please indicate what you think is the best career option for you in the future.

.....

* 39. According to your friends, what is the best career option for you in the future.

.....

* 40. According to your family, what is the best career option for you in the future.

.....

* 41. If I started a new venture/business/company and it failed, it would spoil my image/impression in the eyes of my family members. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement.

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7

* 42. If I started a new venture/business/company and it failed, it would spoil my image/impression in the eyes of my friends. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement.

☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7

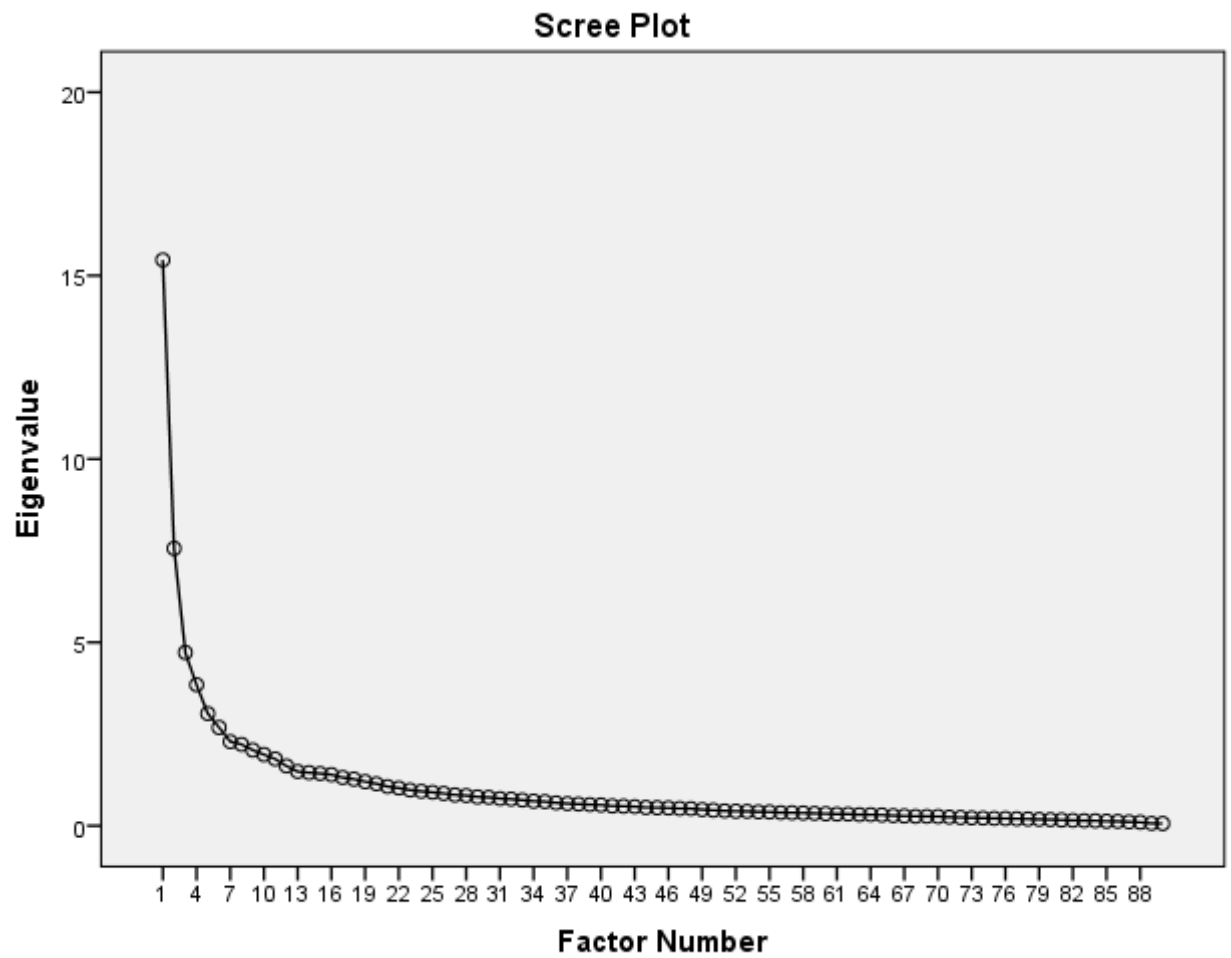
* 43. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I agree to the rules set out by my family	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important for me to ensure that my family is not embarrassed by my actions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important for me to ensure that my friends are not embarrassed by my actions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I will not follow a career that my family thinks is not suitable for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I will not follow a career that my friends think is not suitable for me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important for me to live up-to the image/impressions that my family has about me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important for me to live up-to the image/impressions that my friends have about me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 44. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. Mark 1 for indicating total disagreement and 7 for indicating total agreement with the statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Entrepreneurship as a career choice clashes with the culture of my country	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In India, an Entrepreneur's role in the economy is not recognized	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In India, most people don't consider an entrepreneurial career acceptable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In India, it is commonly thought that Entrepreneurs/business owners take advantage of others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX 3



INITIAL FACTOR MATRIX

Pattern Matrix^a

	Factor																					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
SEk	.926																					-.359
SEl	.918																					
SEg	.890																					
SEf	.873																					
SNI	.740																					.456
SNe	.723																					.531
SNk	.693																				.576	
SNd	.685																				.533	
Sm	.653												.516									
SI	.631												.472									
Sh	.396																					
Sg	.364												.335									
PBCf		.823																				
PBCd		.808																				
PBCe		.802																				
PBCc		.726																				
PBCb		.708																				
PBCa		.615																				
PBCg		.603																				
PAd			.952																			
PAc			.909																			
PAe			.764																			
PAb			.682																			
PAf			.538																			
PAa			.489																			

Imp									.693											
Imm									.561											
Imj										.743										
Iml										.741										
Imi										.543										
Imh										.504										
SNa											.732						.380			
SEc											.650							.438		
SNh											.645				.536					
Sj												.631								
Sk					.516							.535								
Si											.429	.523								
Sn												.395								
Imc													.832							
Ima													.727							
Imb													.720							
FSSd														.912						
FSSc														.563						
FSSe														.411						
SNi															.781			.328		
Ime																.849				
Imd																.767				
SEi																	.733			
SEh											.481						.587			
SNb															.321			.674		
SEd																		.827		

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 17 iterations.

FACTOR MATRIX AFTER REMOVING THE CONSTRUCT FAMILY SUPPORT STRUCTURE

Pattern Matrix ^a																			
	Factor																		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
SEk	.901																	-.354	
SEl	.870																-.331		
SEf	.856																		
SEg	.842																		
SNl	.783																	.433	
SNk	.780																.509		
SNd	.763																.493		
SNe	.751																	.529	
Sl	.631											.502							
Sm	.628											.546							
Sh	.394											.380							
PBCf		.820																	
PBCe		.808																	
PBCd		.802																	
PBCc		.713																	
PBCb		.701																	
PBCg		.613																	
PBCa		.601																	
PAd			.956																
PAc			.915																
PAe			.768																
PAb			.687																
PAf			.539																
PAa			.501																

INe				.930															
INf				.926															
INd				.876															
INc				.789															
INg				.773															
INb				.618															
SEc					1.008														
SEd					.803														
SEh					.631														
SEi					.459														
Imk						.792													
Iml						.641													
IMg						.609													
Imh						.609													
Imi						.600													
IMf						.545													
Imj						.460													
SEe							.801												
SEj							.743												
SNc							.640												
SNj							.594								.406				
Sk							.514						.496						
EEb								.852											
EEa								.819											
EEc								.746											
EEd								.547											
Snn									.800										
SNm									.758										
SNg									.756										
SNf									.673										
Sc										-623									
Sa										-478									

**FINAL FACTOR MATRIX AFTER DELETING ITEMS AND
CONSTRAINING EXTRACTION TO 8 FACTORS**

	Factor							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
SEf	0.865							
SEk	0.862							
SEl	0.826							
SEg	0.825							
Sl	0.741							
Sm	0.732							
SNk	0.712							
SN e	0.677							
PBCf		0.712						
PBCe		0.703						
PBCd		0.695						
PBCc		0.664						
PBCb		0.624						
PBCg		0.577						
PBCa		0.568						
PA d			0.831					
PA c			0.822					
PA e			0.734					
PA b			0.679					
PA f			0.563					
PAa			0.508					
SEc				0.804				
SEd				0.788				

SEi				0.67 1				
SEh				0.66 9				
SN a				0.56 2				
SN b				0.53 7				
INe					0.77 2			
INf					0.77 2			
INd					0.74 3			
INc					0.69 7			
INg					0.66 0			
INb					0.56 6			
EEb						0.77 8		
EEa						0.73 4		
EEc						0.71 9		
EEd						0.58 6		
Imk							0.73 0	
Iml							0.66 9	
Imh							0.61 7	
Imi							0.60 1	
IMg							0.56 1	
Imj							0.50 2	
Snn								0.85 4
SNm								0.79 8
SN g								0.55 5

APPENDIX 4

Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) to check for Multicollinearity in the data set

Coefficients^a

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	SE_Parents_avg	.921	1.086
	SE_GP_Avg	.910	1.099
	EEavg	.980	1.020

a. Dependent Variable: Imageavg

Coefficients^a

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	SE_Parents_avg	.918	1.090
	SE_GP_Avg	.917	1.090
	Imageavg	.985	1.015

a. Dependent Variable: EEavg

Coefficients^a

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	SE_GP_Avg	.976	1.025
	Imageavg	.972	1.029
	EEavg	.964	1.037

a. Dependent Variable: SE_Parents_avg

Coefficients^a

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	Imageavg	.971	1.030
	EEavg	.974	1.027
	SE_Parents_avg	.986	1.014

a. Dependent Variable: SE_GP_Avg

Curve Estimation of data to check for linearity

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: INavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.378	681.207	1	1121	.000	1.167	.686		
Logarithmic	.370	658.894	1	1121	.000	.896	2.284		
Inverse	.310	503.182	1	1121	.000	5.516	-5.527		
Quadratic	.380	343.619	2	1120	.000	.711	.949	-.034	
Cubic	.380	228.916	3	1119	.000	.590	1.067	-.067	.003
Compound	.356	619.515	1	1121	.000	1.475	1.245		
Power	.385	700.891	1	1121	.000	1.289	.768		
S	.360	630.968	1	1121	.000	1.838	-1.965		
Growth	.356	619.515	1	1121	.000	.389	.220		
Exponential	.356	619.515	1	1121	.000	1.475	.220		
Logistic	.356	619.515	1	1121	.000	.678	.803		

The independent variable is PBCavg.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: INavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.437	870.753	1	1121	.000	.322	.691		
Logarithmic	.371	660.771	1	1121	.000	-.009	2.454		
Inverse	.252	376.747	1	1121	.000	5.195	-5.879		
Quadratic	.456	468.639	2	1120	.000	1.843	-.077	.085	
Cubic	.456	312.302	3	1119	.000	2.081	-.292	.141	-.004
Compound	.434	859.593	1	1121	.000	1.092	1.255		
Power	.404	759.129	1	1121	.000	.922	.844		
S	.310	502.978	1	1121	.000	1.738	-2.151		
Growth	.434	859.593	1	1121	.000	.088	.227		
Exponential	.434	859.593	1	1121	.000	1.092	.227		
Logistic	.434	859.593	1	1121	.000	.916	.797		

The independent variable is PAavg.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: INavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.063	75.266	1	1121	.000	2.913	.193		
Logarithmic ^a		
Inverse ^b		
Quadratic	.094	58.222	2	1120	.000	3.523	-.277	.061	
Cubic	.094	38.909	3	1119	.000	3.555	-.385	.099	-.003
Compound	.063	75.522	1	1121	.000	2.554	1.066		
Power ^a		
S ^b		
Growth	.063	75.522	1	1121	.000	.938	.064		
Exponential	.063	75.522	1	1121	.000	2.554	.064		
Logistic	.063	75.522	1	1121	.000	.392	.938		

The independent variable is SN_new_Avg.

a. The independent variable (SN_new_Avg) contains non-positive values. The minimum value is 0. The Logarithmic and Power models cannot be calculated.

b. The independent variable (SN_new_Avg) contains values of zero. The Inverse and S models cannot be calculated.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: INavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.169	227.874	1	1121	.000	1.946	.374		
Logarithmic ^a		
Inverse ^b		
Quadratic	.182	124.342	2	1120	.000	2.859	-.115	.055	
Cubic	.182	82.824	3	1119	.000	2.881	-.141	.062	-.001
Compound	.169	227.499	1	1121	.000	1.858	1.131		
Power ^a		
S ^b		
Growth	.169	227.499	1	1121	.000	.619	.123		
Exponential	.169	227.499	1	1121	.000	1.858	.123		
Logistic	.169	227.499	1	1121	.000	.538	.884		

The independent variable is SE_Parents_avg.

- a. The independent variable (SE_Parents_avg) contains non-positive values. The minimum value is 0. The Logarithmic and Power models cannot be calculated.
- b. The independent variable (SE_Parents_avg) contains values of zero. The Inverse and S models cannot be calculated.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: INavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.010	11.221	1	1121	.001	3.683	.069		
Logarithmic ^a		
Inverse ^b		
Quadratic	.060	35.669	2	1120	.000	4.135	-.471	.086	
Cubic	.062	24.832	3	1119	.000	4.023	-.196	-.023	.011
Compound	.011	12.438	1	1121	.000	3.282	1.024		
Power ^a		
S ^b		
Growth	.011	12.438	1	1121	.000	1.188	.024		
Exponential	.011	12.438	1	1121	.000	3.282	.024		
Logistic	.011	12.438	1	1121	.000	.305	.976		

The independent variable is SE_GP_Avg.

- a. The independent variable (SE_GP_Avg) contains non-positive values. The minimum value is 0. The Logarithmic and Power models cannot be calculated.
- b. The independent variable (SE_GP_Avg) contains values of zero. The Inverse and S models cannot be calculated.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: INavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.005	5.911	1	1121	.015	3.401	.139		
Logarithmic	.005	5.280	1	1121	.022	3.383	.411		
Inverse	.004	4.594	1	1121	.032	4.201	-1.040		
Quadratic	.006	3.294	2	1120	.037	3.850	-.139	.041	
Cubic	.007	2.580	3	1119	.052	2.509	1.193	-.371	.040
Compound	.007	7.963	1	1121	.005	2.926	1.055		
Power	.008	8.537	1	1121	.004	2.853	.172		
S	.008	9.191	1	1121	.002	1.406	-.484		
Growth	.007	7.963	1	1121	.005	1.074	.053		
Exponential	.007	7.963	1	1121	.005	2.926	.053		
Logistic	.007	7.963	1	1121	.005	.342	.948		

The independent variable is Imageavg.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: INavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.087	107.093	1	1121	.000	3.122	.362		
Logarithmic	.077	92.973	1	1121	.000	3.470	.713		
Inverse	.060	71.977	1	1121	.000	4.568	-1.047		
Quadratic	.089	54.407	2	1120	.000	3.304	.174	.036	
Cubic	.089	36.260	3	1119	.000	3.377	.064	.081	-.005
Compound	.087	106.581	1	1121	.000	2.739	1.126		
Power	.083	101.466	1	1121	.000	3.053	.245		
S	.071	85.482	1	1121	.000	1.503	-.374		
Growth	.087	106.581	1	1121	.000	1.008	.119		
Exponential	.087	106.581	1	1121	.000	2.739	.119		
Logistic	.087	106.581	1	1121	.000	.365	.888		

The independent variable is EEavg.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: PBCavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.139	181.351	1	1121	.000	3.097	.410		
Logarithmic	.124	158.437	1	1121	.000	3.488	.812		
Inverse	.101	125.330	1	1121	.000	4.751	-1.211		
Quadratic	.142	92.654	2	1120	.000	3.328	.171	.046	
Cubic	.143	62.420	3	1119	.000	2.975	.709	-.172	.025
Compound	.121	153.761	1	1121	.000	2.914	1.120		
Power	.115	145.152	1	1121	.000	3.232	.232		
S	.099	122.758	1	1121	.000	1.541	-.357		
Growth	.121	153.761	1	1121	.000	1.069	.113		
Exponential	.121	153.761	1	1121	.000	2.914	.113		
Logistic	.121	153.761	1	1121	.000	.343	.893		

The independent variable is EEavg.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: PBCavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.008	8.889	1	1121	.003	3.429	.152		
Logarithmic	.005	5.690	1	1121	.017	3.493	.382		
Inverse	.003	3.149	1	1121	.076	4.193	-.772		
Quadratic	.016	9.327	2	1120	.000	4.943	-.784	.137	
Cubic	.016	6.233	3	1119	.000	4.670	-.514	.054	.008
Compound	.006	6.984	1	1121	.008	3.216	1.041		
Power	.005	5.263	1	1121	.022	3.237	.109		
S	.004	3.982	1	1121	.046	1.386	-.258		
Growth	.006	6.984	1	1121	.008	1.168	.040		
Exponential	.006	6.984	1	1121	.008	3.216	.040		
Logistic	.006	6.984	1	1121	.008	.311	.961		

The independent variable is Imageavg.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: PBCavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.149	196.030	1	1121	.000	2.328	.315		
Logarithmic ^a		
Inverse ^b		
Quadratic	.164	109.489	2	1120	.000	3.207	-.156	.053	
Cubic	.164	72.955	3	1119	.000	3.148	-.088	.033	.002
Compound	.149	195.595	1	1121	.000	2.279	1.098		
Power ^a		
S ^b		
Growth	.149	195.595	1	1121	.000	.824	.094		
Exponential	.149	195.595	1	1121	.000	2.279	.094		
Logistic	.149	195.595	1	1121	.000	.439	.911		

The independent variable is SE_Parents_avg.

a. The independent variable (SE_Parents_avg) contains non-positive values. The minimum value is 0. The Logarithmic and Power models cannot be calculated.

b. The independent variable (SE_Parents_avg) contains values of zero. The Inverse and S models cannot be calculated.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: PBCavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.039	45.740	1	1121	.000	3.604	.123		
Logarithmic ^a		
Inverse ^b		
Quadratic	.075	45.380	2	1120	.000	3.946	-.286	.065	
Cubic	.083	33.571	3	1119	.000	3.773	.141	-.103	.017
Compound	.035	40.128	1	1121	.000	3.349	1.035		
Power ^a		
S ^b		
Growth	.035	40.128	1	1121	.000	1.209	.034		
Exponential	.035	40.128	1	1121	.000	3.349	.034		
Logistic	.035	40.128	1	1121	.000	.299	.966		

The independent variable is SE_GP_Avg.

a. The independent variable (SE_GP_Avg) contains non-positive values. The minimum value is 0. The Logarithmic and Power models cannot be calculated.

b. The independent variable (SE_GP_Avg) contains values of zero. The Inverse and S models cannot be calculated.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: PAavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.002	2.506	1	1121	.114	5.060	.031		
Logarithmic ^a		
Inverse ^b		
Quadratic	.040	23.193	2	1120	.000	5.435	-.417	.071	
Cubic	.042	16.229	3	1119	.000	5.342	-.187	-.019	.009
Compound	.003	3.165	1	1121	.076	4.753	1.009		
Power ^a		
S ^b		
Growth	.003	3.165	1	1121	.076	1.559	.009		
Exponential	.003	3.165	1	1121	.076	4.753	.009		
Logistic	.003	3.165	1	1121	.076	.210	.991		

The independent variable is SE_GP_Avg.

a. The independent variable (SE_GP_Avg) contains non-positive values. The minimum value is 0. The Logarithmic and Power models cannot be calculated.

b. The independent variable (SE_GP_Avg) contains values of zero. The Inverse and S models cannot be calculated.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: PAavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.158	210.649	1	1121	.000	3.359	.347		
Logarithmic ^a		
Inverse ^b		
Quadratic	.160	106.871	2	1120	.000	3.711	.158	.021	
Cubic	.161	71.358	3	1119	.000	3.869	-.025	.074	-.004
Compound	.154	204.786	1	1121	.000	3.082	1.093		
Power ^a		
S ^b		
Growth	.154	204.786	1	1121	.000	1.126	.089		
Exponential	.154	204.786	1	1121	.000	3.082	.089		
Logistic	.154	204.786	1	1121	.000	.324	.915		

The independent variable is SE_Parents_avg.

a. The independent variable (SE_Parents_avg) contains non-positive values. The minimum value is 0. The Logarithmic and Power models cannot be calculated.

b. The independent variable (SE_Parents_avg) contains values of zero. The Inverse and S models cannot be calculated.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: PAavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.020	23.133	1	1121	.000	4.801	.167		
Logarithmic	.015	17.002	1	1121	.000	4.977	.301		
Inverse	.010	11.304	1	1121	.001	5.418	-.408		
Quadratic	.025	14.156	2	1120	.000	5.116	-.159	.063	
Cubic	.025	9.440	3	1119	.000	5.171	-.242	.096	-.004
Compound	.016	17.671	1	1121	.000	4.506	1.039		
Power	.012	14.176	1	1121	.000	4.682	.071		
S	.009	10.522	1	1121	.001	1.652	-.102		
Growth	.016	17.671	1	1121	.000	1.505	.038		
Exponential	.016	17.671	1	1121	.000	4.506	.038		
Logistic	.016	17.671	1	1121	.000	.222	.963		

The independent variable is EEavg.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: PAavg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.001	1.320	1	1121	.251	4.933	.063		
Logarithmic	.001	1.260	1	1121	.262	4.917	.192		
Inverse	.001	1.445	1	1121	.230	5.322	-.559		
Quadratic	.001	.730	2	1120	.482	5.129	-.058	.018	
Cubic	.001	.518	3	1119	.670	4.757	.310	-.096	.011
Compound	.004	3.965	1	1121	.047	4.425	1.029		
Power	.004	4.639	1	1121	.031	4.345	.096		
S	.005	6.057	1	1121	.014	1.676	-.296		
Growth	.004	3.965	1	1121	.047	1.487	.028		
Exponential	.004	3.965	1	1121	.047	4.425	.028		
Logistic	.004	3.965	1	1121	.047	.226	.972		

The independent variable is Imageavg.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: SN_new_Avg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.006	6.904	1	1121	.009	4.329	.194		
Logarithmic	.005	5.856	1	1121	.016	4.321	.561		
Inverse	.004	4.753	1	1121	.029	5.423	-1.371		
Quadratic	.007	3.979	2	1120	.019	5.054	-.254	.066	
Cubic	.007	2.667	3	1119	.046	4.688	.109	-.046	.011
Compound ^a		
Power ^a		
S ^a		
Growth ^a		
Exponential ^a		
Logistic ^a		

The independent variable is Imageavg.

a. The dependent variable (SN_new_Avg) contains non-positive values. The minimum value is 0. Log transform cannot be applied. The Compound, Power, S, Growth, Exponential, and Logistic models cannot be calculated for this variable.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: SN_new_Avg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.002	1.701	1	1121	.192	4.871	.062		
Logarithmic	.001	1.339	1	1121	.247	4.934	.115		
Inverse	.001	.810	1	1121	.368	5.098	-.149		
Quadratic	.002	.877	2	1120	.416	4.916	.016	.009	
Cubic	.002	.612	3	1119	.607	5.034	-.163	.081	-.008
Compound ^a		
Power ^a		
S ^a		
Growth ^a		
Exponential ^a		
Logistic ^a		

The independent variable is EEavg.

a. The dependent variable (SN_new_Avg) contains non-positive values. The minimum value is 0. Log transform cannot be applied. The Compound, Power, S, Growth, Exponential, and Logistic models cannot be calculated for this variable.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: SN_new_Avg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.065	78.208	1	1121	.000	3.442	.302		
Logarithmic ^a		
Inverse ^b		
Quadratic	.066	39.603	2	1120	.000	3.140	.464	-.018	
Cubic	.066	26.488	3	1119	.000	2.950	.683	-.081	.005
Compound ^c		
Power ^{a,c}		
S ^{b,c}		
Growth ^c		
Exponential ^c		
Logistic ^c		

The independent variable is SE_Parents_avg.

a. The independent variable (SE_Parents_avg) contains non-positive values. The minimum value is 0. The Logarithmic and Power models cannot be calculated.

b. The independent variable (SE_Parents_avg) contains values of zero. The Inverse and S models cannot be calculated.

c. The dependent variable (SN_new_Avg) contains non-positive values. The minimum value is 0. Log transform cannot be applied. The Compound, Power, S, Growth, Exponential, and Logistic models cannot be calculated for this variable.

Model Summary and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: SN_new_Avg

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	.019	21.671	1	1121	.000	4.646	.124		
Logarithmic ^a		
Inverse ^b		
Quadratic	.027	15.673	2	1120	.000	4.884	-.161	.045	
Cubic	.031	11.742	3	1119	.000	4.720	.246	-.115	.016
Compound ^c		
Power ^{a,c}		
S ^{b,c}		
Growth ^c		
Exponential ^c		
Logistic ^c		

The independent variable is SE_GP_Avg.

a. The independent variable (SE_GP_Avg) contains non-positive values. The minimum value is 0. The Logarithmic and Power models cannot be calculated.

b. The independent variable (SE_GP_Avg) contains values of zero. The Inverse and S models cannot be calculated.

c. The dependent variable (SN_new_Avg) contains non-positive values. The minimum value is 0. Log transform cannot be applied. The Compound, Power, S, Growth, Exponential, and Logistic models cannot be calculated for this variable.

APPENDIX 5(A): ETHNOGRAPHIC SUMMARY EXAMPLE

Family 5: Location: Vasant Kunj, South Delhi

Family Members:

Prof G. - Grandfather (89) – Retired Professor of Economics

Mrs. G - Grandmother (80) – House wife

Mrs. N - Mother (54) – Psychologist

Mr. N - Father (58) – Retired Captain, Merchant Navy, Lecturer at Merchant Navy Training Institute

Ms. DN - Child (27, F) – PhD Student

Ms. AN - Child (19, F) – Student (Law)

Period of Observation - 25th November 2014 - 29th November 2014

Introduction

Middle-class, service-background family living in a 3 bedroom apartment in Vasant Kunj, a posh locality of South Delhi. The household has 3 cars and has a full-time female helper living in the house. The family has a cook that comes thrice a day and also has a full-time chauffer. The master bedroom belonged to the Father and Mother. The second master bedroom, located exactly opposite the first master bedroom at the other end of the house was for the Grandfather and Grandmother. The third slightly smaller room, located adjacent to the parents' bedroom was shared between the two sisters. The main door opened into a large reception/living room. Next to this was a dining room with an open-plan kitchen.

I gained access to the family through a common friend from London. I first met the family on Saturday afternoon, when all members were present in the house. During my initial meeting with Mr. and Mrs. N, I explained my research topic to them and explained the need to observe several families as a part of my field-research. The family was immediately very interested and receptive of my plans. The parents had a quick discussion with the grandparents and children who were also present in the house at that time and confirmed to me that I was welcome to observe them for as long as I needed. I was also informed by Mrs. N that her sister, who is an Anthropologist in Toronto, Canada had conducted an 8-month long ethnographic research on a specific tribe of Northern India as a part of her PhD field-work. As a result of this, they were well aware of the requirements and were more than happy to help me out with my research. It was decided that I would begin the observation from the following Monday.

Day 1

I reached the home at 6.30am on a Monday morning. I was greeted at the door by the grandfather. I was immediately taken to the kitchen-cum-dining area where I was offered a cup of tea and breakfast. The grandmother was sitting in a small prayer room and conducting her everyday prayers and rituals. I sat with the grandfather while he was reading the newspaper and discussed the news of the day with him, till the grandmother finished her prayers and joined us for tea. Soon after, the Father and Mother came out of their room as well and were followed by the older daughter waking up. The family exchanged quick pleasantries with each other. The parents took the newspapers to their bedroom, which they both read in silence while the helper served them tea in bed. I excused myself and sat in the living room which is the most

central area of the apartment. From here I could get a good look at what was going on in the entire house without being an obstruction to anyone.

The frenzy began with the cook and the chauffeur reporting for their duties around 8am. The cook made breakfast for everyone in the house and also packed lunches for the father, mother and older daughter who were getting ready to leave for work. The cook and the helper were both being supervised and given instructions by the grandmother. She was deciding what will be made for breakfast, what lunches will be packed etc. All this while, the grandfather had retreated into his bedroom. He spent the next few hours sitting on his study table completely engrossed in writing something. On asking the grandmother, she told me that once he has fully read the newspaper from cover to cover, he spends a few hours every morning writing his comments, opinions and views about the articles he found interesting.

Within 30 minutes, the father and mother left for their respective jobs in their own cars while the chauffeur left to drop the older daughter off to her university, in the third car. The morning frenzy died down as quickly as it had started. The younger daughter, who I was told had been studying all night for her upcoming Law exams, slept through all of this. Once most of the family had left for their respective jobs, the grandmother once again got busy with organizing the daily chores and supervising the helpers around the house. The responsibility of everyone in the household seemed to lie on the grandmother, who was well aware of everyone's needs, likes and dislikes. Not long after breakfast was over, did she start preparing for lunch. She told me that she usually prepared lunch depending on what the youngest daughter liked to eat. She supervised the helper while she cleaned the entire house and at the same time also supervised the cook who was preparing lunch.

There were two televisions in the house, one in the parents' bedroom and one in the grandparents' bedroom. During the day, while the parents were away at work the grandmother spent her time watching television in the parents' bedroom as the grandfather was busy reading or writing in their bedroom and did not like to be disturbed. The younger daughter woke up around lunch time and met the grandparents straight at the table for lunch. I was invited for lunch with the family. Since, this was my first day with the family, the discussions at the table revolved around me and my research interests. At this point, I took the opportunity to ask the grandfather if I could sit with him post-lunch to discuss and learn a little about his childhood and life, to which he readily agreed.

Once lunch was over, the grandmother busied herself with once again looking after the chores and cleaning up while the younger daughter retreated to her room to continue studying. The grandfather helped in the cleaning up in the kitchen after lunch before we sat down for a discussion over a cup of tea.

***Grandfather:** Born in October 1925 into a very wealthy business family in Lucknow, India. His family had a very successful jewellery business and were the official jewellers to the Viceroy of British India. He and his siblings were educated in a Private school, where they were the only Indian children studying amongst all other white, British children. Unfortunately, his father had an untimely death leaving the entire responsibility of the business on the shoulders of his oldest brother who was at that time only 18 years old. Having grown up surrounded by all the wealth and riches, his older brother had never shown any interest in learning the family business. Even before the death of his father, his older brother had taken to drinking and gambling. The pressure of the family business now being on his shoulders, pushed him over the edge and he was unable to carry on the business. The family faced a lot of losses in business due to the lack of experience*

and maturity of the brother. From being one of the wealthiest families in Northern India, their family now was struggling to arrange 3 meals a day. He very fondly remembers his mother, who died a few years after his father, as a proud and strong headed woman who kept the entire family together during the difficult days. But he often pointed out during our discussions that due to her being uneducated she was unable to run the family business and provide help and guidance to her older son. More bad luck followed the family, with the death of both his older brothers leaving the business in the hands of the senior most employees. But the family business which had been hanging by the thread, eventually went into bankruptcy due to lack of leadership and discipline. "Looking at the disaster my entire family had gone through due to being a business family, I vowed not to participate in any business activities". "I made sure, that my remaining siblings did not do so either". All this while, he was bent on continuing his and his remaining sibling's education and did small odd jobs to keep the family afloat. By the time he was in his early twenties, he had managed to get himself a bachelor's degree in economics and had secured a job in the Vigilance Department of Government of India for which he moved to New Delhi. With his salary he paid for his sister's wedding and his younger brother's engineering degree as well as his marriage. Having grown up in pre-Independence India and being a part of the freedom struggle himself, his passion and love for his country drove him to train in the National Cadet Corps (NCC) camp and he enrolled for the Territorial Army for India. All this time, his hard-work propelled him up the ranks in his job and he eventually went on to become the Director General of the Vigilance Department of Government of India.

"However, I feel most privileged that I was able to fight for my country in the 1971 war against Pakistan." During the 1971 war between India and Pakistan, the

Territorial Army was called upon to help Indian troops at the border. He was part of the Sikh regiment that was sent to fight at the north-western border between India and Pakistan. It was evident that amongst his many accomplishments, he felt most proud about his role in the India-Pakistan war in 1971. He finally retired as a Colonel from the Territorial Army. Despite all this, he claims he was still not ready to sit at home and lead a normal retired life. He decided to continue his education further and did an MBA in 1980. After retiring from his position as D.G of Vigilance, he took up position of Professor of Economics and dedicated his time to passing on his experience and knowledge to the younger generation. He taught as a Professor of Economics at the Faculty of Management Studies in New Delhi for 6 years. He then also continued teaching as a visiting professor in several other Management colleges and private universities in Delhi for 10 years. His love of education, reading and writing was clearly evident. He showed me a book of prose and poetry that he has recently gotten published. It had poems that he had been writing since he was 15 years old.

“Marriage is a social obligation..” is what he replied when I asked him to tell me about his personal life apart from work. He got married while he was working in the Vigilance Department. He had two daughters. The most important thing for him was to ensure that they get the best education and are completely independent. He got them enrolled into the best schools and colleges in New Delhi. Both his daughters then went on to do PhDs and have successful academic careers that he is very proud of and gives himself full credit for! He believes that with the right support and guidance from parents – all children can succeed in life.

It was amazing how quickly time passed while listening to him talk passionately about his childhood, his career and his life. Before I knew it, it was already 4.30pm. The grandmother who had retired to her room after lunch for her afternoon nap was

once again in the kitchen organizing tea and snacks. The cook and the helper who had also disappeared to rest after lunch were once again busy following her instructions. Once tea and snacks were ready, the grandmother called the youngest daughter to take a break from her studies and join everyone else for tea in the dining area. This was the first time she sat and spoke to the grand-parents in the entire day. They discussed the studies and how her preparation was going for the upcoming examinations. She discussed some of the topics she had been studying and had a lively discussion on one of the law case studies with her grandfather.

Soon the sun set and the grandmother went into the small prayer room to do some prayers and light a small candle and incense sticks. This was almost like a signal for everyone else to wrap up tea and start preparations for dinner! The younger daughter went back to her room to study, the grandfather retired into his room to rest and continue reading. While the grandmother was once again doing what I had seen her do almost the entire day, that is, supervise the kitchen.

The father was the first to return from work around 6.30pm, followed by the mother about half an hour later. The chauffeur had been sent to pick up the older daughter, who arrived almost at the same time as the mother. They were all offered tea and snacks and the entire family, except the grandfather, sat together in the living room to discuss their day and catch up with each other. I found out that the father and mother both work in the same organization but in different office locations. Most of the discussions were therefore related to their office. The father then retired to his bedroom to relax and watch some television. The mother, grandmother and both the daughters remained seated and continued talking. The discussions now concerned mostly the younger daughters' studies and exam preparations. The family then dispersed into their respective rooms to meet a short while later for dinner around 8.30pm.

The dinner that was being prepared was made keeping in mind everyone's preferences. There was something to keep everyone happy! There were no fixed spots at the dining table and everyone sat where ever they found a place. The discussion on the dinner table were not personal conversations about each other's day, but rather general topics such as the latest news and happenings of the day, the food and politics were discussed.

Once dinner was complete, I was again expecting the grandmother to busy herself with clearing up the kitchen. But this time, it was the mother and the father who cleared up the kitchen along with the helper.

Since this was my first day at their home, I decided not to stay for too long and left the house soon after dinner around 10pm.

Day 2

I reached the home at 6.30am and just like the first day I was greeted at the door by the grandfather, while the grandmother was in the prayer room. My cup of tea had already been prepared for me, in the same way that I had requested for the first time.

The events of the morning unfolded in the same way as the first day. The morning was calm and everyone was enjoying their cup of tea, until a phone call sent the entire household into a frenzy. The cook had just called to inform them that since she was unwell she would not be coming over that day. Everyone, right from the father and the grandfather to the helper, seemed very distressed, clearly showing the dependence of the entire house on the services being offered by the cook. However, the day had to go on. The grandmother along with the helper now prepared the packed lunches for everyone while the mother, father and older daughter prepared breakfast for everyone. The older daughter was driven to her work as usual as she told everyone she could not be late. The father left for work at his usual time as well, though the mother stayed behind a little longer to help the grandmother clear up and organize lunch. The grandfather did not seem to be affected much by the cook's absence as he had retired into his room to start his writing for the day.

The rush of the morning came to an end with everyone leaving for their respective jobs. The younger daughter had once again slept through the entire morning commotion and the family had made full effort not to disturb her sleep as they knew she had been up all night studying. Since the cook was not going to be coming, it had been decided to prepare a simple lunch and not make too much fuss over the dinner either. The morning was thus relatively free for the grandmother as she had one less person to supervise. I decided to make the most of this opportunity and got the grandmother to sit down with me and find out about her upbringing, childhood and life.

Grandmother: Born in June, 1935 into a wealthy 'Zameendaar' or land-owners family in Nanital, Uttranchal, India. She was the youngest of 6 siblings with 5 older brothers. Her father was a Lawyer by education but had given up his practice to look after the family agricultural business and large amounts of land that they would lease out to people. Being the youngest in the family and being the only girl she was a very pampered and protected child. Although, having grown up in the midst of 5 brothers, she claims she was also very tough and sporty. She recalls having a very uneventful but pleasant and loving childhood. Her father was very particular about the education of all his children. Once again, coming from a very wealthy and influential family she and her siblings had access to the best school and university education. Two of her brothers continued to study Law like their father, two of them went on to study Medicine and later left to continue their higher education in America. She remembers how this was very rare in those times in India as very few people could afford to send their children to study to foreign countries. She also remembers her grandmother not being very happy that her father had decided to send his young sons alone to a new country, but her father was certain that going to America would be the best option for their future. Despite several tries, her 5th brother did not get into Medical school and hence decided to do a PhD in Zoology and he too later went to America where he worked as a Researcher Scientist. She recalls not being fond of studying very much but was a keen sportsperson. She played several sports during her school days including baseball, softball and hockey. But she was aware that a career in sports would not be encouraged at all in her family, especially for a girl. She then decided to pursue her second love, her love for reading, and did first a Bachelor's and then a Master's degree in English Literature. At this stage she again mentions her grandmother telling her father "You will never find a boy to marry a girl so highly educated..". But her father was always very clear that his children, whether sons or

daughter, would get the same level of education. She was not sure about why her father never involved any of her brothers in the family business. Even when her two oldest brothers, who were lawyers, offered to help her father he always insisted that they keep their practices separate and not get involved in the family business. Gradually, as all her brothers and she herself got married and settled down, their father kept selling off parts of his business and farming land and eventually retired, not passing on part of his business to any of his children.

Her marriage, was arranged and fixed by her father. Her father always wanted a highly educated boy who knew the importance of education. As a typical Indian girl in those days, she did not have much say in deciding who she got married to but she trusted her father enough to blindly follow his instructions to marry the man he deemed appropriate for her. Even though she was educated enough to get a job once she moved to Delhi after her wedding, and her husband, unlike most men at that time, had no objections to her having a job she decided to be a house-wife and look after her husband. In a couple of years after their marriage they had their first child, a daughter. She took it upon herself to ensure that the values and culture that had been given to them is also passed on to their children. She admits that one of the main reasons she was concerned about the upbringing of her children was because they had both lived their entire lives in small, close-knit towns. Moving to a big city like Delhi was a matter of concern as she did not want the values that she grew up with to get lost. She had another daughter six years later and now was involved full-time in looking after the children.

Unlike, the time when I sat down with the grandfather, the grandmother never gave me her full attention. She kept excusing herself to go look at the helper in the kitchen, attend to her husband's need, answer the telephone and continued her other household chores while still talking to me. However, by the end of her story, while it was evident

that she and her husband had had significantly different childhood and life experiences, it was clear that their overall outlook towards life, their aims, their focus on education and themselves having a strong educational background is what had kept them together for almost 60 years.

Not long after the completion of my session with the grandmother, did the younger daughter wake up and everyone starting preparing for lunch. Even though the lunch was not as elaborate as the first day, everyone was helping in whatever way they could so that the grandmother did not have to stress herself out too much. The discussions over lunch once again seemed to be focused on my work. The grandfather seemed especially keen on understanding the implications of social aspects on Entrepreneurship as he admitted he had always viewed it from an economic point of view. It was during this discussion that the younger daughter claimed that she would someday love to run her own bakery business. I was informed by the grandmother that she was an excellent baker and could make several different types of sweet and savoury baked items. However, the discussion was almost immediately interrupted by the grandfather who changed the topic and started asking me about my family background.

Soon lunch was over, and all of us helped out in clearing up the kitchen and dining area. It had been a busy morning for everyone, so the grandparents retired to their rooms to rest for the afternoon. I was very keen on learning more about the younger daughter, her career ambitions and her hopes to start her own business. I requested her if she would be able to take out some from her study schedule to talk to me. Initially she seemed a little reluctant. She said she had a busy day planned ahead but she would definitely take out time to talk to me the following day. I realized this was probably better, as she would have become more comfortable and at ease with my presence by then and therefore might be able to provide me more detailed information.

The grandmother who seemed tired remained in her bedroom and the tea-time preparations were carried out by the grandfather and the helper. It was interesting to see that he was helping out in the daily chores and very comfortably took over the job his wife had been doing the previous day. The grandmother came out of her room just before sun-set to start the evening prayer and light the incense sticks. Once she was done with this, I asked her why no one else in the house took part in the prayer activity. She responded that usually it is up to the oldest person in the house to do the prayer. *“Also, I never really enforced it on anyone else. If they were interested they would have joined me on their own. They see me do it every day.”*

Both the parents were back early from work. It was interesting to see how everyone was concerned that the cook was not going to be present and were trying their best to help out with the chores in whatever way they could. The mother made tea for everyone, while the father and the older daughter started preparation for dinner based on the instructions given by the grandmother. Dinner was served earlier than the previous day. The conversations at the dinner table however remained along the same lines. They discussed each other's day, the exam preparation of the younger daughter and then the latest news and events of the day.

I informed them that I would be coming over around lunch, time to carry on the observations, the next day. The grandfather seemed a little upset, he said he was beginning to enjoy our early morning conversations over tea!

Day 3

On the third day of my observation I reached the house around lunch time. I was glad to see that the cook was back to work and they had prepared a nice lunch and were waiting for me to join them.

At lunch, they were keen to know how my research was progressing and whether I was getting enough relevant information by observing them. The grandfather was interested in discussing the news and events of the day with me, as we had missed our morning conversation.

Finally, once lunch was wrapped up and the grandparents retired to their rooms for their afternoon nap. I got time to sit and speak to the younger daughter as she informed me that she taken out time from her study schedule to speak to me.

Younger Daughter: *Born in February 1995, in New Delhi, India. She told me that she was born in a house not far away from where they lived now. She recalls the fondest memories of her childhood as being the time she spent traveling with her family on the ship while her father was a Captain in the Merchant Navy. From when she was 2 years old she had been accompanying her father along with her mother and older sister on the ship for 2 months every summer school vacations. She fondly recalls the several trips they had taken around the world, visiting beautiful and exciting cities around the globe. I was keen to know how they managed to cope up with their school work while they were away on holiday. She told me that her mother had been close to all her school teachers and even the principle of the school that she and her sister studied in. Her mother always made sure she got the entire curriculum from the teachers at the beginning of the school year and took all the study material with them on the ship. So even though they were on a holiday, her mother had a strict schedule for them. She made sure that she and her older sister studied like a school*

day, kept up-to-date with their homework, coursework, readings etc. She said “Most of the time, when we would return back home from the ship and go to school, we would have actually covered more than what they had done in school and we would be easily a few topics ahead of the teachers.” She has always been a good student. Her teachers were always fond of her since she always scored the best grades in her class in almost all subjects.

Her parents were very proud of her academic achievements but they wanted to do other activities as well. She told me that she was made to take a lot of extra-activities by her parents while she was in school. She took classical Indian dance lessons for 5 years when she was younger. She also took painting classes when she was 10 years old, but stopped them soon after as she never enjoyed it. However, her passion has always been cooking and baking. “I get it from my father”, she said. I later found out that her father and in fact, even her grandfather were very good cooks and really enjoyed cooking. She said, cooking was always a stress-reliever for her. Every time she was tired or upset she would cook for herself and it made her feel really good.

Once she finished school, everyone was keen to know what field she had decided to pursue. Her parents, their friends and almost everyone else that knew the family was interested in knowing what she was planning to do after school. It was clear that she was expected to enrol into a good university, although there was no pressure on what subject she would chose to study. She remembers deciding to study law, mostly because all her friends were doing that. She got a place in one of the best law schools in the country, where she is studying now.

I was surprised that she had not mentioned anything about her wanting to start her own baking business sometime in the future, as she had mentioned over lunch the previous day. I decided to probe this further and asked her when she thought she would be able to start her own business.

“Oh, I don’t think I will be really doing that. I really enjoy baking and I know everyone really likes my baking but I don’t think I will actually ever be able to start my own business.” She told me that she was sure her parents would not be happy with the idea of her setting up a 'cake-shop' and would probably not be very supportive. She also said she wasn’t sure it was even a viable business, especially in comparison to having a proper career as a lawyer. Plus, it’s not easy coping with the ups and downs. I would rather have a more stable career. Look at what my grandfather went through - “He saw the worst of times, but he was such a strong individual that he could survive it, I doubt I would be able to come out of something like that.”

I was also keen on finding out about her friends, in order to get some more information regarding other individuals of her age group.

She told me most of her friends came from similar backgrounds as hers. Their parents mostly belonged to the service-industry and they were all following professional careers. However, on probing some more she informed me that her boyfriend belonged to a wealthy business family in New Delhi. Her parents did not approve of him, mainly because he had dropped out of University without completing his bachelor's degree. She mentioned how her parents kept pointing out that his family set-up was very different to their own, especially the fact that most of the women in his house such as his mother, his sister, and sister-in-law didn’t have any proper education and had no careers. She admitted that her friends could be divided into two distinct groups. One that consisted of well educated, service-background families with each of the children pursuing good careers. And the other was her boyfriend’s friend circle that consisted mostly of business class families, where most of the children either followed their parents into the family business or did not do anything at all.

Seeing the grandparents wake up and start preparing for tea, I realized I had spent a lot of time talking to her and let her get back to her studies. Over tea, I spoke to both the

grandmother and the grandfather to see what they felt about the younger daughters' opinion about starting her own baking business. The grandmother seemed relatively open to the idea of the younger daughter having her own business in the future, provided she had completed her law degree and gained some experience in the field. She agreed that she was very good at baking and it would be interesting to see what other people thought of it. However, it was evident that the grandfather was not pleased at the idea. He felt that the business world was not ethical and honesty and hard-work doesn't always pay-off. Therefore, most of the times one has to follow an unethical path to succeed in business, because of which he has always stayed away from it and would like his family to stay away from it as well.

Since, it was a Friday night the parents and both the children had plans of their own for the evening. I decided to leave the family early and informed them that I would return on Saturday morning around 11am to spend the weekend with them.

Day 4

I reached the house at 11am on Saturday morning and this time was greeted at the door by the mother. When I entered I automatically started walking towards the kitchen-cum-dining area where I had been having my morning tea with the grandparents for the last 3 days, but surprisingly the mother ushered me towards the formal living room. Unlike the previous days when I had been helping the grandfather in preparing our own teas, this time tea was brought to me in the living room by the helper. Soon after the tea was brought to us, the father joined us in the living room as well. I politely informed them that I was not interested in holding a formal interview with them but instead wanted to just observe them in their daily routines, to which they readily agreed. I was informed that they, along with their two daughters, had plans to visit a close friend of the mother's for dinner later that day. They requested me to join them so that I could also meet some of their friends and interact with their social circle. I jumped at this opportunity and instantly agreed!

On finishing tea, I followed the parents back into the dining area where the grandmother was preparing for lunch, more elaborate than the usual weekday lunch. The grandfather was also sitting nearby and reading the newspaper and doing his usual writing on the dining table, rather than in his bedroom as usual. The entire activity of the house seemed to be concentrated in the shared area between the kitchen and dining room. Both the daughters were still asleep in their bedrooms. The father, who I was aware was a keen cook, was busy helping the grandmother and the cook in the kitchen. He was preparing a special meat dish for the children. The mother was supervising the helper who was dusting and cleaning every nook and corner of the house. The grandmother told me that this was the scene almost every weekend, with the father cooking something special and the mother doing all the cleaning.

The dynamics of the house looked different from the previous three days. While the grandmother was the main person controlling and running the house last three days, it was

evident that when the parents are around, the grandparents took a back seat. Now the reins were in the mother's hand. All decisions regarding the house, discussions about the week gone by and the week coming up were made by the mother. She informed the grandmother of the salaries that had to be paid to the house helpers since the last week of the month was coming up, she reminded them of a hospital appointment that was due for the grandfather in the next week. She also decided what grocery shopping had to be for the upcoming week after discussing with everyone what they would like for lunch and dinner and if anyone had any special requests for food. The daughters woke up a little before lunch time. They didn't seem too keen on helping out around the house. The older daughter went into the parents' bedroom to watch television, while the younger daughter once again retreated into the books to study.

Lunchtime was not much different from previous days. It was interesting to note that the entire discussion at the table, revolved around the two daughters their studies and their respective careers. It was becoming increasingly clear to me that their daughters' careers were of great importance to the family. While they were very proud of both their academic achievements and said they had full faith in how the daughters conducted their lives, it was evident that, both the parents and grandparents liked to be kept informed about what was going on so that they could provide their assistance or guidance whenever needed.

Once lunch was over and the kitchen cleared, the entire family sat together for an hour in the living room. The grandfather and the father were having a discussion on the latest political developments in India. Both of them had different opinions on the issue and were supporters of rival political parties. But at no point did the discussion get out of hand. They were very passionately engrossed in their debate but it was evident that they were aware of their boundaries and respected each other enough to ensure that nothing inappropriate is said by either of them. The mother and grandmother were having their own discussion about a cousin's recent wedding and how too much money had been

wasted on the affair. The younger daughter had been very impressed with the wedding and didn't see anything wrong with people spending excessive amounts of money on a pompous wedding function. The older daughter was not very involved in either of the conversation, but was sitting on the corner most couch in the living room, reading a book that had been given to her by her grandfather.

Soon the family began to disperse into their respective bedrooms to rest. I requested the father to stay behind so that I could learn a little more about his childhood and upbringing.

***Father:** Born in July, 1956 in Nanital, India into a well off business family. His father was a lawyer by profession, but similar to the grandmother, had left his practice to look into the family agricultural business. They owned several farms, fruit orchards and forest land in areas surrounding their house. He was the youngest sibling, with two older brothers and one older sister. When he was only around 5 years old, his young cousin brother came to stay with them along with his mother since his father had passed away in an accident and his family had offered to help them out. Both the families were very close and lived together for many years. He and his brothers were sent to a posh Boarding school for boys in Nanital which was run by the Congregation of Christian Brothers. His sister was sent to another boarding school close by that was only for girls. He remembers fondly how his father was very strict about studies, and his oldest brother who was 15 years older to him, was given the responsibility of looking after the lessons of the all the younger siblings. They had a fixed time-table for studying and they would be punished if any of them didn't stick to it. Both of his older brothers went on to study law like their father. The oldest one, got married and moved to Mumbai with his wife where her family had a business of petrol and gas pumps. He never practiced law, but got integrated into his wife's business. The second brother decided to stay in Nanital and practiced law. He never had a very good*

career, but the money from their father's farm land was more than enough for them. He too got married young and continued living in their fathers' home.

However, he recalls that he was never satisfied living in a small town like Nanital and had always dreamed of moving out. His dream was to join the Indian Air-force. He even went and enrolled for training camps, but because of not having perfect eye sight, he was unable to get selected. Somehow, during the time he was trying to get into the air force, he was introduced to the option of Merchant Navy and it immediately attracted him.

I asked him why he never decided to take help from his father or older brother and start a business of his own after move to a bigger city? He was very clear about how he felt about having his own business.

"I have always been a family-kind of person. I love sitting with my family, spending time with them, talking to them and being fully involved in their daily lives. I feel business prevents one from doing so." He said that he has very few memories of his father from his childhood days. It was always either his mother or his older brother that would look after them. The father was always away on work and never really talked to anyone.

"Also, I think business restricts your mind.." He mentions how his father never talked about anything other than his work, he had no other interest and no other real exposures in life. He feels very proud of the life experiences he gathered while he was in the Merchant Navy for 35 years.

He continued his story on how he joined the Merchant Navy.

He enrolled into a training institute when he was only 18 years old and moved to Mumbai. The next 8-10 years of his life he describes as a complete blur. There was a lot of work and hard training while he was making his way up the ladder from cadet to finally Captain for which he had to give several Nautical science exams and several practical training exams. He told me that he had decided not to get

married till he became Captain, and as soon as he heard he had passed his final exams, he gave his parents the go ahead to find him a girl. He recalls that he never questioned his parents on their choice of girl for him. His wife now, was one of the first few girls that his parents arranged for him to meet. He mentioned that one of the main reasons he agreed to marry her was that since she was a psychologist, with her own private practice she would be ready to travel with him while he was on the ship.

Within the family, he is the most successful so far. He is very proud of the fact that at the young age of 18, he took the decision to leave home and that decision paid off. He got to travel the whole world, the experience and exposure that his job provided made him very open-minded. He finally settled in New Delhi after his wedding. His children were sent to the best schools and colleges unlike his other brothers and sisters who were still in the small town of Nanital. He gives a lot of credit to his wife. He believes that her education and the strong family values that she grew up with have been pivotal in the upbringing of their children.

He finally retired from the sea a few years ago. He wanted to spend more time at home now, with his children and family. He joined one of the leading training institutes in India that trains new cadets. He is also responsible for the training of new captains. "I am happy I am able to spread the knowledge and experience I gained over all these years and younger people."

By the time I finished my discussion with the father, the rest of the house had emerged from their rooms and were getting ready to leave for the dinner party. I noticed that the mother was the main person taking decisions on who was going to be wearing what for the dinner. Since the party was at her friend's house, she said it was important they all dressed in a way she deemed appropriate. There wasn't much opposition to her either, and everyone obliged.

The grandparents were going to stay at home and have a quiet evening by themselves, watching a movie. Once everyone was ready, the father drove us in his car to the venue for the evening.

On reaching the friend's place I was immediately ignored, much to my liking. I sat in a corner and observed how all the people met and greeted each other. I had been told during our drive to the party that the host was the mother's college friend, and also a Psychologist. Most of the other guests in the party were the mother's old friends. But since they had known each other for so long, their respective husbands were now close friends as well. Also, most of their children were the same age group as well. So everyone had someone that they could enjoy with.

I was finally introduced into the group and was given a very warm welcome. I was surprised to see, that outside of my university, this was the first time I was in the midst of so many PhDs. Most of the guests at the party held a PhD, subjects ranging from sociology, psychology, economics, English etc. The conversations therefore were all very interesting and enlightening. They discussed Politics from not only a political and economic angle but also a sociological and psychological one. They discussed latest developments in science and medicine not only from a biological but also an economic and political perspective. It was also interesting to see that the children were not sitting separately but were an active part of the conversations with the parents. Another interesting observation that I made during the time I was being introduced to everyone was that all the children, just like the parents, had chosen professional careers. Most of the children present, were either studying Law or had just started practicing Law.

I was interviewed by several guests at the party about my research and what I plan to do once I finish. They were very keen to know more about entrepreneurship and whether I had any experience as an Entrepreneur myself. I found out that no one of

them had ever been involved in a business of any kind. While they were not entirely averse to the idea, they were not sure whether they had the capabilities to survive in the business world. One statement that I heard most often was “*It's a dirty world out there..*”.

I decided not stick around for too long and left the family and the party early after informing them that I will be back at their house for my last day of observation on Sunday.

Day 5

I arrived at the house at 11am, and just as always by greeted at the door by the grandfather. I followed him to the kitchen area where everyone was sitting. It looked like the parents had woken up not long ago. I enquired about how their party had been and was told that it had been good.

Since this was my last day of observation with the family I wanted to make the most of it. I had already learned a lot about the mother's past family background from the grandparents but I was very keen on speaking to the oldest daughter and learning about her life and career decisions. Since everyone else was busy with their morning chores of making tea, reading the newspaper etc. I decided it was the best time to have a conversation with her.

Older Daughter: *Born in April 1987, in New Delhi, India. Just like her younger sister, the first thing she remembered and wanted to talk about from her childhood was the several holidays they took with their parents while sailing on the ship. Since I had already learnt a lot of their travels on the ship, I requested her to tell me more about her recent life. "I have always been interested in reading. Was never into sports or any other creativity activity for that matter." She told me she had always been a bright student and her teachers always told her parents that they were lucky to have a daughter like her. She recalls that when they were young they were never allowed to watch television for too long and almost never without adult supervision. One of her favourite shows used to be the 'Animal Kingdom' on Discovery channel. She was always very fond of Biology and her parents were very keen on her doing Medical and becoming a Doctor. However, she told me that during her last year in school, she told her parents that she was not interested in becoming a Doctor but rather was more interested in doing research and a PhD. She remembers having long discussions with her parents that went on for months where they*

tried to convince her to do a Medical degree instead. But at the end, they agreed to what she wanted and she went ahead to do a PhD.

“I never had too much time for friends, and the ones I made were usually the people I met at work. So most of my friends are all in the research field.” “When I was in school, a lot of my school friends came from wealthy business families. I was very close to them for very long, but somehow we lost touch over the past few years. I think our thinking and aims in life were quite different.”

The older daughter seemed to have a very clear mind. She was sure about what she wanted and was confident that her decisions were in line with what her parents “expected” from her.

We were interrupted in between and asked to join the family for lunch which was waiting for us in the dining area. The meal today was more elaborate than on any other previous day. I was told that this was so because it was my last day with the family. After exchanging a few pleasantries about the food. I decided to openly ask everyone present at the table what they felt about Entrepreneurship as a career option and how they would have felt if their daughters would have chosen to follow that route.

The grandfather was the first to speak. *“Parents are like signposts, we can only guide and support you in the right direction, after that it’s up to the individual what road they decide to take.”* It looked like he was implying that following an entrepreneurial career would be like going down a wrong route. However the father added *“We would support them no matter what route they choose, whether we would be happy or not is a different matter.”* Also *“Everyone will be so surprised if they heard that my daughter wanted to start a business. That’s quite uncommon in our circle.”* said the mother, indicating the importance of the image they had in society.

I was keen on knowing what the daughters felt about this and so asked them to tell me what they felt. The older daughter replied *“I don’t think I would have ever chosen to*

start my own business. I don't know anyone who has started one, so who would I go to for advice or help when I needed it?" The younger daughter did not say anything.

I felt I had learnt enough and gotten a good sense about the family values within this family. So I decided to leave them soon after lunch.

APPENDIX 5(B): EXAMPLE OF ETHNOGRAPHIC SUMMARY OF KEY OBSERVATIONS

Summary of Family 5 observations

Key Characteristics:

- Joint-family, Professional background
- Financially well off, with no pressures.
- All members highly educated.

Day 1

1. No strict rules and regulations in family regarding daily routine – although routine fairly fixed.
2. Equal role of male and female members in daily chores – everyone willing to help each other.
3. Members highly responsive and supportive to each other's needs, likes and dislikes.

Main conversation: Grandfather

- Grew up in large, very wealth business family – business eventually failed and family saw very tough times. (Very negative attitude towards business/entrepreneurship following this experience)
- Main focus has been on education (helped him through tough times)
- Continued studying and teaching till he was 80 years old.

Day 2

1. Family works together to avoid pressure of daily chores on individual members
2. Duties equally divided between males and females
3. Family respectful of needs and requirements of younger generation too – young daughters given freedom to focus on their work.
4. Grandmother did not put pressure on family to participate in her religious routines – felt they should have freedom to decide

Main conversation: Grandmother

- Also grew up in wealthy business family – but father did not pass on business or skills to any children. They instead studied and took up professional careers.
- Mostly talked about importance of educating her daughters.
- Religious person – daily prayers conducted.

Note: Both grandparents from business/entrepreneurial backgrounds but no interest in business. No skills passed on.

Day 3

1. Main highlight – discussion with younger daughter (showed some inclination towards entrepreneurship)

Younger daughter:

- Always a very good student – with interest in activities like dancing and painting. But most importantly cooking.
- Keen to impress family with good grades and hard work.
- Was not sure of what path to follow after school – chose law since a lot of friends (of the family too) were studying law. (Felt the need to fit into the crowd and please everyone).
- Most friends from similar professional family backgrounds. Boyfriend from a

business family.

- Parents don't approve of boyfriend due to family background and traditional role of women in his family.
- Did not mention about wanting to start a business (related to baking/cooking) – on probing mentions negative experience of grandfather and not making parents unhappy.

Day 4 (Saturday)

1. Entire family present, and a lot more activity taking place. Everyone involved in cooking and preparing together. Lots of activities done together as a family.
2. Discussions focused on work/career/studies of both children.
3. Other discussions showed open attitude – different views and opinions accepted by all members.
4. Attended social event with family – most friends of the family had PhD (very academically oriented friend/social circle)
5. All generations at the social event interacted equally with each other – lots of law students in the group (*Reason for younger daughter choosing law?*)

Main conversation: Father

- Also from business family.
- Has unpleasant memories of father being away on business and being stressed most of the times – decided to not follow a path like his fathers and hence chose to stay away (like all his other siblings)
- Keen on keeping up-to-date with his daughters and their lives

Day 5 (Sunday)

Main conversation: Older Daughter

- Similar to sister, very good student.
- No interests in activities apart from studying and was certain about PhD - got full support from family to pursue career of choice.
- Very close to grandparents and feel they have best guidance to provide based on their vast experience.

Note: Asked family opinion about entrepreneurship at dinner table – Grandfather/father say it is not something they would approve but would support if the children were adamant.

Mother concerned about them not fitting with their social circle.

Categorizing and Identifying key themes from Family 5

1. No gender based roles – male and female members equally participating in daily chores (**Theme- Family support structure**)
2. Close knit family, highly supportive of each other's needs and requirements.
(**Theme – Importance of support and Encouragement**)
3. No financial pressures. (**Theme – Importance of support and Encouragement**)
4. Overall, past experiences/socialization was negative relating to business/entrepreneurship. Often, openly discussed by father and grandfather with family members. (**Theme – Socialization**)
5. Social circle very similar to family – no exceptions. Underlying need to maintain this homogenous nature. (**Theme – Socialization and Need to conform to Image**)
6. No entrepreneurial intentions in either of the two sisters. Although the younger sister (main person of observation) showed some inclination. But strong relationships with grandparents and parents discouraged her from taking any steps towards it.